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DECEMBER 1, 1904

MARKETING GOODS IN FRANCE

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1904

MARKETING GOODS IN FRANCE.

(From United States Consul-General Gowdy, Paris, France.)

COUNTRIES MARKETING GOODS.

It may be said that every country markets goods in the city of Paris, which may be considered as one of the principal centers of the world for "shopping."

The following figures will show approximately the extent of the trade of other nations with France:

Value of imports from the leading countries into France in 1903.

Countries.	Value.	Countries.	Value.
Great Britain	\$109,000,000	Switzerland	\$21,500,000
United States	92,000,000	Turkey	19,000,000
Germany	87,000,000	Brazil	18,500,000
Belgium	65,000,000	Austria-Hungary	15,000,000
Russia	56,000,000	Other countries	302,000,000
Argentina	50,000,000		
Spain	33,000,000	Total	897,000,000
Italy	29,000,000		

The United States is second on the list in amount of imports into France, and shows an increase of nearly \$10,000,000 over 1902.

As compared with 1902, there was a great increase in goods received from Russia, Germany, and Argentina in 1903. There was a slight falling off in both the imports from and exports to Great Britain. The same can be said of Turkey, Austria, and Italy. There were slight increases in the trade of France with Switzerland and Brazil. Russia had the greatest increase, the imports therefrom into France in 1903 being \$16,500,000 more than in 1902, while the exports from France to Russia were \$380,000 less than in the preceding year.

The principal products imported into France from the several countries were as follows in 1903: Russia, linseed, grain, oil, and wool; Great Britain, coal, linen goods, and machinery; Germany, coal, machinery, and small manufactured goods; Belgium, coal, linen, and marble; Switzerland, woven goods, clocks, and food products; Italy, silks and food products; Spain, wines and minerals; Austria, woods,

NOTE BY BUREAU OF STATISTICS.—On May 19, 1904, a circular was mailed to the consuls of the United States wherein they were instructed to report, for their respective districts, (1) the countries marketing goods therein, (2) how trade is conducted, (3) credits, and (4) mercantile agencies and commercial ratings. The replies to this circular will be published, as received, in the Daily Consular Reports, and when completed in this form will be issued as a volume of Special Consular Reports.

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manufactured; Turkey, rough silk and skins; United States, cotton, oil, tobacco, copper, machinery, tools, food products, and grain; Brazil, coffee, cocoa, and rubber; Argentina, wool and grain.

The French colony of Algeria does not seem to increase its trade with the mother country, a falling off in exports from France to Algeria and a slight decrease in the imports therefrom being noticeable in 1903. France sends to Algeria food products, cotton, clothing, and perfumery, and receives therefrom cattle, wool, grain, and wine.

CREDITS.

The general terms of credit are three months on sight when a firm is well known. Drafts at thirty days on sight are drawn on individuals and firms unknown to the sellers, information of course being secured as to the standing of the buyer. The average French dealer expects at least thirty days' credit after receipt of goods—many obtain a much longer period—and are averse to the system of payment against bill of lading. American firms would no doubt facilitate business by allowing a larger margin of credit, such as is given at home, of course verifying the standing of the purchasers.

All the large banking houses do a certain credit business, and money is lent on a very close percentage, in some cases as low as 2 to 3 per cent. Such banking business is mainly in the hands of the Société Générale, Comptoir d'Escompte, Crédit Lyonnais, Crédit du Nord, Société Industrielle, Société de Banque, Banque de Paris et Pays-Bas, and the Banque de France. There are several other large banking concerns, such as those of Messrs. Hottinger Brothers, Perier & Cie., and Rothschild Brothers, giving credit, but the business is confined to specified channels. The famous Crédit Foncier gives credit mainly on real-estate securities.

MERCANTILE RATINGS.

Many of the large banking concerns (to say nothing of the hundreds of small ones) will secure information for clients as to the standing and financial responsibility of both individuals and firms, and there are several agencies in Paris making a specialty of such investigations. Among them may be mentioned the Sécurité de Commerce, and Messrs. Dun & Co., of New York.

JOHN K. GOWDY, *Consul-General.*

PARIS, FRANCE, *July 11, 1904.*

BORDEAUX.

(*From United States Consul Tourgée, Bordeaux, France.*)

The principal countries marketing goods in Bordeaux are the United States, Brazil, England, Russia, Austria, Belgium, the Netherlands, Germany, Italy, Norway, and Sweden.

The business is conducted almost wholly through agencies. Very little is done direct. The terms of credit vary a great deal. A merchant who buys direct from a foreign firm must pay 90 or 95 per cent on bill of lading; he then sells at thirty days and 2 per cent discount or sixty days and 1 per cent discount, or ninety days net. No bank accepts a draft at more than ninety days' sight.

The principal credit agencies are the *Crédit Lyonnais*, *Comptoir National d'Escompte*, *Société Générale*, *Société Bordelaise*, *Banque de Bordeaux*, and *Samazeiulh & Piganeau*, bankers. For many reasons the reports of these agencies are not always to be relied on. There are several private firms that make a specialty of furnishing reports upon the financial standing of firms and individuals, but their reports are of even less value than those of the agencies named above.

ALBION W. TOURGÉE, *Consul*.

BORDEAUX, FRANCE, *July 27, 1904*.

CALAIS.

(From United States Consul Milner, Calais, France.)

The countries marketing goods in this consular district are Norway, Sweden, Russia, England, the United States, Italy, Spain, Switzerland, and Argentina. Their business is conducted chiefly by local agents and by mail. Traveling salesmen come from Sweden and Norway for the sale of lumber.

Terms of credit vary with each kind of trade. The term of credit for lumber is three months on receipt of bill of lading or cash with proportionate discount; for corn and grain it is sixty days, on acceptance of draft by banker against bill of lading, or cash with discount.

There are credit agencies in Paris, but none in this district. Banks and *huissiers*—the latter being persons charged with functions similar to sheriffs in the United States—give information on the financial standing of individuals and firms.

J. B. MILNER, *Consul*.

CALAIS, FRANCE, *July 7, 1904*.

GRENOBLE.

(From United States Vice and Deputy Consul Murton, Grenoble, France.)

COUNTRIES MARKETING GOODS.

No foreign countries market goods direct in Grenoble in any appreciable quantities or in a general way, and the few articles of foreign produce that find their way here usually come through Paris or seaport importing firms. There should be scope, however, for

American enterprise in this district, especially in the electrical and engineering industries, as vast improvements are in progress in the town and surroundings, since the French people have become alive to the value of "white coal," or, in other words, the vast water power that abounds in these parts. There are possibilities also for competition in various other branches of trade, although, perhaps, not to any great extent, as Grenoble only counts a population at present of some 65,000 inhabitants.

HOW TRADE IS CONDUCTED.

What business is done is usually by salesmen or by mail. There are no established depots or stores of foreign firms in this place that I am aware of.

CREDITS AND MERCANTILE RATINGS.

The general terms of credit prevailing here are cash at thirty days, discount 2 and 3 per cent, or ninety days' draft, net.

The credit agencies having branch establishments and doing business in Grenoble are Le Banque de Finance, Le Crédit Lyonnais, La Société Générale, Le Crédit Foncier, and one or two private banks, purely local. These agencies, as a rule, furnish information as to the financial standing of individuals, companies, and firms.

T. W. MURTON, *Vice and Deputy Consul.*

GRENOBLE, FRANCE, *July 30, 1904.*

HAVRE.

(*From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.*)

COUNTRIES MARKETING GOODS.

Havre being one of the great commercial ports of Europe, and one of the most important gateways to the Continent, merchandise is received from all parts of the world. The bulk of the goods imported is for consumption in France, the remainder being for distribution in the contiguous continental countries and in Great Britain.

To indicate the foreign countries which market their products in Havre I give herewith a list of the principal classes of merchandise imported during the year 1903, together with the names of the countries from which the goods were imported:

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS INTO HAVRE AND WHENCE IMPORTED.

Animal food products.—Great Britain, Germany, the United States, Belgium, Chile, Canada, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Italy, Argentina.

Hides and skins.—Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Great Britain, Ger-

many, the Netherlands, Belgium, Switzerland, Spain, Italy, Egypt, British and Dutch East India, China, Siam, Japan, Australia, the United States, South American republics, West Indies, French colonies.

Raw wool.—Russia, Great Britain, Germany, Belgium, Portugal, Morocco, Australia, the United States, Venezuela, Brazil, Uruguay, Argentina, Ecuador, Chile, Algèria.

Horsehair and bristles.—Great Britain, Germany, Mexico, Brazil, Uruguay, Argentina, Peru, Chile, the United States, Turkey, China, Belgium, British East India.

Crude feathers.—Great Britain, British India, China, Japan, the United States, Uruguay, Argentina, Chile, Denmark.

Raw silk.—Switzerland, Italy, the United States, China, Great Britain, British India, Indo-China.

Animal fats and other products, lard, tallow, wax, etc.—Great Britain, Germany, Spain, Italy, China, the United States, Madagascar, the Netherlands, Indo-China, Belgium, Switzerland, British India, Japan, South American republics, West Indies, Sweden, Turkey.

Cheese.—The Netherlands, Switzerland, Denmark, Great Britain, Italy.

Fish, and products of same.—Great Britain, Spain, British India, Canada, the United States, Norway, Sweden, the Netherlands, Japan, Indo-China, Italy, Venezuela.

Animal substances used for medicine.—Australia, the United States, British India.

Elephant tusks, ivory, shells, etc., used for manufacturing purposes.—West Coast of Africa, French possessions in Africa, French possessions in India, Germany, British and Dutch East India, Australia, South American republics, Haiti, Madagascar, Guadeloupe, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Egypt, Japan, New Caledonia, Siam, Cuba, Porto Rico.

Cereals and products from same.—Russia, Australia, the United States, Canada, Sweden, the Netherlands, Algeria, Roumania, Turkey, Argentina, Great Britain, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Italy, British India, Brazil, Reunion, Indo-China, New Caledonia, Dutch East India, Japan, Spain, Egypt.

Fruits and seeds for edible purposes and for making oil.—Spain, Portugal, the United States, Turkey, French, Dutch, and British East India, Senegal, Roumania, Russia, Egypt, Haiti, Argentina, Canada, Germany, Venezuela, Oceania, West Coast of Africa.

Sugar.—Mayotte, Reunion, Indo-China, Martinique, Guadeloupe, Madagascar, Germany.

Coffee.—Great Britain, Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, Turkey, Egypt, British and Dutch East India, the United States, Mexico, the South American republics, Dominican Republic and other West Indian republics, West Coast of Africa, New Caledonia, Guadeloupe.

Cocoa.—Great Britain, Portugal, the United States, South American republics, Haiti, Dominican Republic, St. Thomas, West Coast of Africa, Madagascar, Martinique.

Pepper and pimento.—Great Britain, British India, Indo-China, Germany, Spain, Venezuela, Dominican Republic.

Tea.—Great Britain, Germany, British India, China, Indo-China.

Tobacco in all forms.—Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, Spain, Austria, Greece, Turkey, the United States, Colombia, Haiti.

Vegetable oils and gums.—Spain, Italy, Greece, Algeria, Tunis, West Coast of Africa, China, Germany, British and Dutch East India, Indo-China, Great Britain, the Netherlands, the United States, Japan, Madagascar, Belgium, Turkey, Egypt, Australia, Portugal, New Caledonia, Japan, Mexico, South American republics, Haiti.

Wood.—The United States, New Caledonia, Germany, Russia, Norway, Roumania, Sweden, Madagascar, Canada, Portugal, Japan, Switzerland, South American republics, Belgium, West Coast of Africa, Indo-China, the Netherlands, Siam, Egypt.

Raw cotton.—Great Britain, the United States, Turkey, Egypt, British India, Colombia, Venezuela, Brazil, Peru, Chile, Haiti.

Other fibers (flax, hemp, etc.).—Germany, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Belgium, Italy, Greece, Turkey, China, British India, Japan, East Coast of Africa, the United States, Mexico, Chile, Nossi-Bé, Madagascar, Algeria, Egypt, Colombia, Ecuador.

Wood and bark for tanning purposes.—The Netherlands, Egypt, China, West Coast of Africa, the United States, Great Britain, Germany, Dutch East India, Australia, Argentina, Algeria, Greece, Turkey, Colombia, Venezuela, Peru, Haiti, Dominican Republic, Spain, Chile.

Oil cake.—Portugal, Spain, British India, the United States, Brazil, Uruguay, Argentina, Canada.

Materials for paper making.—Germany, Belgium, the United States, Mexico, Brazil, Argentina, New Caledonia, Portugal, the Netherlands, Spain, Turkey, Canada, Sweden, Norway.

Wines.—Great Britain, Germany, Switzerland, Portugal, Spain, Italy, Turkey, Greece, Algeria, the Netherlands, the United States, Belgium.

Distilled liquors.—Spain, Algeria, Germany, Reunion, Martinique, Guadeloupe, Switzerland, Great Britain, the Netherlands.

Building materials (stone, brick, etc.).—Germany, the Netherlands, Norway, Belgium, Great Britain, Portugal.

Coal and coke.—Great Britain, Germany, Turkey, Belgium.

Heavy oils.—Russia, the United States, Great Britain, Germany, Belgium.

Iron ore.—Belgium, Spain, Chile.

Manufactured iron.—Great Britain, the United States, Mexico, Switzerland, Sweden, Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands.

Steel.—Germany, Belgium, Great Britain, the United States.

Chemical products.—Germany, the United States, the Netherlands, Great Britain, Belgium, Argentina, Ecuador, Chile, Switzerland, Uruguay, Brazil, Spain.

Pottery and glassware.—Great Britain, Germany, Belgium, Japan, British India, China, the United States.

Paper.—Germany, Belgium, Spain, the United States, Switzerland.

Leather and leather goods.—The United States, Great Britain, Switzerland, Germany, Belgium, China.

Furniture and wooden ware.—Germany, the United States, Japan, Holland, Great Britain, Sweden, British India.

Machinery.—The United States, Great Britain, Germany, Belgium, Sweden.

HOW TRADE IS CONDUCTED.

The methods employed depend upon the character of the goods handled. In such lines as coffee, cocoa, cotton, dyestuffs, and other similar raw materials, the merchants, or producers, in the country of production, either have their own agents in Havre or do their business through local merchants.

In regard to manufactured articles, as a general rule, foreign manufacturers or dealers either have a general agent in Paris or in one or several of the large French industrial cities or centers, who in turn has subagents or representatives in the provinces to canvass the local markets, or they send their own salesmen to France to visit the large and small towns and sell direct to the local merchants or consumers. The general agent sometimes is of the same nationality as the foreign merchant, but, as a general rule, he is a Frenchman.

Business is also carried on by correspondence and by catalogues, but these methods at the best may be considered only as an auxiliary means of securing and keeping up a trade.

The foreign salesmen most often seen in this consular district are Germans, Englishmen, Swiss, and Belgians. They almost invariably speak French perfectly, and are therefore able to converse with the possible buyer in his own language. They are well posted as to the requirements of the territory which they have to cover; they are indefatigable in the search of business; they know what they have to sell and how to present it in the most favorable light. They are "hustlers," but are familiar enough with the French character to wait with patience for the proper moment to clinch their sales. On the other hand, there is probably no better commercial traveler in the world, in his own country, than the American, but the salesman from the United States met with abroad can rarely speak any language but his own, and has to depend upon an interpreter to carry on a conversation with his client. He is well equipped with excellent photographs

or cuts, with catalogues too often printed in English, with samples of his wares, but he is generally at sea when asked to quote prices in French currency, and quantities and weights in the metric measure. Therefore, when he has to compete with well-trained native salesmen, or with foreign salesmen who are almost as efficient, he is working under a great disadvantage.

CREDITS.

In France, as in the rest of Europe, long credits are the rule rather than the exception. Cotton, coffee, and other colonial products are usually sold on sight drafts at sixty days, sometimes on drafts payable ninety days after shipment. If the importer wishes to take delivery of the goods upon their arrival he can do so by paying the face of the draft less the interest for the time the draft has still to run. In Havre drafts are usually drawn through the local banks or through a London bank.

In some cases shippers of colonial products have open accounts with the local merchants, drawing against the shipment of goods, the local merchant repaying himself for his commission, interest, and expenses out of the proceeds when the goods are sold, but this method is fast passing out of practice.

In ordinary business transactions in France the general terms are 2 per cent discount for cash in thirty days, 1 per cent discount for cash in sixty days, and net at ninety days.

Accounts are usually collected by drafts. If the seller wishes to discount his drafts, if his credit is good, the usual rate is that of the Bank of France, which seldom exceeds 3 per cent per annum, plus a commission of 20 centimes (3.86 cents) per 100 francs (\$19.30) for thirty and sixty day drafts and 25 centimes (4.82½ cents) per 100 francs (\$19.30) for ninety-day drafts.

MERCANTILE RATING.

Information regarding the financial standing of individuals, companies, and firms is obtained through numerous credit agencies, whose principal offices are generally located in Paris. The more important ones, however, have subagencies in most of the larger provincial cities. Merchants also use their banks for finding out the financial credit of their customers.

Among the most reliable commercial agencies in France (all in Paris) may be mentioned the following, in which it will be noted that the names of two of the large American agencies appear:

R. G. Dun & Co., 29 Boulevard Poissonnière; Agence Probitas, 3 Rue d'Hauteville; the Bradstreet Company, 20 Boulevard Montmartre; Le Crédit Commercial, 23 Rue Richer; Agence Générale de Renseignements, 1 Rue Montesquieu; L'Information, 15 Rue de la

Grange Batelière; Comptoir Commerciale, 25 Boulevard Poissonnière; Prudence Commerciale, 57 Boulevard de Strasbourg; Le Recours de Commerce, 46 Rue Richer; Société de Renseignements Commerciaux, 12 Faubourg Poissonnière; L'Union Commerciale, 104 Rue de Riche-lieu; Wys Muller & Co., 51 Rue Etienne Marcel.

A. M. THACKARA, *Consul*.

HAVRE, FRANCE, *July 20, 1904.*

LA ROCHELLE.

(From United States Consul Jackson, La Rochelle, France.)

COUNTRIES MARKETING GOODS.

The foreign countries which market goods in this district and the principal articles which enter into the trade are as follows: England, coals, woolen tissues, biscuits, bacon, cutlery, horse rakes, and heaters for hard coal; Germany, toys and notions, post cards, fancy goods in porcelain and earthenware, and occasionally coal; Belgium, fertilizers and superphosphates; Holland, cheese; Norway and Russia, lumber for construction; Austria-Hungary, oak for brandy casks; Spain, fresh fruits, grapes, oranges, pomegranates, and raisins; India, jute and bones; Argentina, hides; Haiti, coffee; the United States, phosphate rocks, coal (occasionally), grain, ham and other pork products, dried fruits, prunes, apples, apricots, pears, tinned fruits, salmon, tinned meats, agricultural implements, lubricating oils, and crude petroleum.

HOW TRADE IS CONDUCTED.^a

Business is conducted by securing agencies in the country, having the merchandise sent by the most circuitous routes, and handled by too many middlemen, each of whom has a commission, so that finally when the goods are sold the price may be increased to two or three times the retail price in the United States.

CREDITS AND MERCANTILE RATINGS.

The general terms of credit in this district are: For purchasers, three months' credit, or 75 per cent cash and balance three months; for sellers the same, but very often cash against documents. The credit agencies doing business here are the banking houses known as the Société Générale and the Crédit Lyonnais, besides several private banks. These agencies report confidentially the financial standing of individuals, companies, and firms.

GEORGE H. JACKSON, *Consul*.

LA ROCHELLE, FRANCE, *July 20, 1904.*

^a The consul evidently refers to the manner in which American business is conducted in his district.

LYON.

(From United States Consul Covert, Lyon, France.)

COUNTRIES MARKETING GOODS.

Nearly all nations sell goods in this consular district and in this city.

Large quantities of raw silk are received annually from Italy, China, Japan, and Syria.

The imports from Germany consist principally of chemicals, toys, building wood, lithographs, illustrated postal cards, glass pearls used in making crowns and funeral ornaments, and coal.

The imports from Italy consist of raw silk, glass pearls used in crowns that are placed on tombstones, straw hats, wine, fruits, oranges, goatskins, and a small quantity of marble and bronze statuary.

The imports from Russia consist largely of grain and wood, the latter generally pine.

The imports from the United States are pitch pine, agricultural implements, preserved and dried fruits, canned fish and meats, sewing machines, typewriters, cash registers, piping, and numerous small articles of manufacture. There have been seasons when the French people depended largely upon the United States for apples, which are very much liked in the markets.

The imports of agricultural products depend very largely upon the crops. In a good season France can almost supply the demands of its people for all farm products except meats.

HOW TRADE IS CONDUCTED.

The business of foreign countries in France is chiefly conducted by agencies in Lyon, Paris, or Marseille. Very little of it is done by traveling salesmen. Merchants here have houses in other countries or have agencies there.

CREDITS AND MERCANTILE RATINGS.

The terms of credit vary, but three months' time is generally given on bills. There are no credit agencies in this city or consular district.

JOHN C. COVERT, *Consul*.

LYON, FRANCE, *July 19, 1904.*

MARSEILLE.

(From United States Consul-General Skinner, Marseille, France.)

COUNTRIES MARKETING GOODS.

Practically every country has a share in the trade of Marseille. The city may be said to be the capital of the French colonial empire, with which it is connected by numerous steamship lines. Taken col-

lectively, the colonial trade is the most valuable. Next in importance come the importing operations carried on with India and Africa in certain raw products, particularly cereals and oilseeds. There is scarcely anything under the head of manufactured goods or raw products of which Marseille is not either a buyer or a seller.

HOW TRADE IS CONDUCTED.

This city may be said to be thoroughly cosmopolitan, and business methods are necessarily cosmopolitan also. Probably three-fourths of the entire commercial operations take place in the bourse, which is open for this purpose in the morning and evening. During the hours when the bourse is open every business house of importance has its representatives on the spot, and, by means of brokers, buyers and sellers are brought immediately into contact. The system is very democratic—much more so than anything of the kind in the United States. In France the bourse is the creation of the State, organized and operated for the benefit and use of all persons who pay their business patent or tax. This tax being paid, the individual enjoys every privilege of which the bourse disposes, including that of voting for members of a select committee who constitute the chamber of commerce, and also for members of a tribunal of commerce, composed of business men actually engaged in trade. There is therefore no such thing as the buying and selling of seats upon the board of trade, and no such thing as a private corporation practically discharging quasi-public functions. The French organization permits of buying within the bourse and of regulating by a jury of their peers practically all the disputes liable to arise in business transactions between business men. The chamber of commerce legislates for the business community and has certain rights which enable the business community to keep in close touch with the ministry for commerce at Paris. It is one of the wheels in the highly centralized French system of government.

Small retail business is sought by means of traveling salesmen, as in the United States, bourse transactions being generally upon a large scale.

Foreign trade is usually done through large commission houses. Oils, seeds, and cereals, for which a heavy demand exists normally, are consigned to Marseille houses, and sold by them upon the market. Warehousing facilities make it perfectly feasible to operate in this manner. American wheat, lard, meat, corn, etc., are sold upon the basis of American inspection certificates, the sale being closed before the goods are shipped. As a rule these certificates are highly regarded. The system is ideal in theory, the only possible ground of complaint being that the inspection certificates are not always issued with sufficient care, and that the inspecting powers assume only a moral responsibility.

Dealers in manufactured goods have stocks in hand, and sell out of these stocks as much as possible. Strong firms, particularly in agricultural lines, buy outright, the foreign exporter knowing nothing about the details of the business. Lumber being bulky, the lots are sold by the commission houses before they arrive. Where trade is to be created and extended, it may be set down as desirable that the exporting firm supply a stock of its merchandise to its Marseille branch or agency, so that the buyer can inspect goods before delivery. The most striking examples of American business successes abroad are those of certain prominent firms which export to their own branches, and reach out for the ultimate consumer in their own way, adopting American methods with very little differences except as to language.

CREDITS.

The rule of this market is to sell goods for cash, this expression meaning in fact cash within ten days from delivery. By exception to the general rule oilseeds are sold only at ninety days, with a discount of 1 per cent for cash. Wool also is sold at ninety days, nominally, with a discount of $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, the tendency being to accept the discount.

Bills are discounted with recourse upon the indorser and also "à forfait," that is to say, that the maker only is to be held responsible. At this writing French banking firms have an unprecedented amount of money at their disposal. Good commercial paper is greatly sought and discounted at the rate of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent per annum. This, of course, is extraordinary.

MERCANTILE RATING.

French business firms are very much more inclined to seek for commercial information from their bankers than from the reporting agencies, of which there are many. The banks are particularly accommodating, important institutions having departments which devote themselves to this work. The information is supplied gratuitously to clients. Commercial credit reporting is not so systematized, nor anything like as reliable, as in the United States. Latterly the two great American agencies, Bradstreet's and Dun's, have perfected arrangements, and have branches in all the larger foreign cities, discharging their duties with the same fidelity as in the United States. The addresses of Marseille credit agencies are as follows:

R. G. Dun & Co., 4 Rue Noailles; Wys Muller & Cie., 2 Rue Paradis; Finat, Ch. & Cie., 22 Rue St. Ferréol; Fayard, J., 32 Rue de la République; L'Information, 18 Rue de la République; l'Indice, 2 Rue François Moisson. These agencies report upon individuals, societies, and companies.

ROBERT P. SKINNER, *Consul-General.*

MARSEILLE, FRANCE, *June 30, 1904.*

NANTES.

(From United States Consul Ridgely, Nantes, France.)

The principal foreign countries marketing goods in this district are England, Germany, Spain, and the United States. Business affairs with them are generally conducted by mail and through traveling salesmen from Germany, England, and Spain.

England, Spain, and Germany give credits of thirty and sixty days, while American companies and firms require cash against documents, though sometimes they permit the merchandise to be examined before acceptance. Very few American houses accord the facilities for payment which other countries accord, and this manner of treating affairs is the cause of the relatively small commerce between the United States and this part of France. If American exporters would accept payment at thirty or sixty days their commerce with this country would have a much greater importance.

The principal credit agencies doing business here are the banks of which the three most important are the *Crédit Lyonnais*, the *Société Générale*, and the *Comptoir National d'Escompte*. These banks occasionally furnish the financial standing of individuals and of companies or firms.

BENJ. H. RIDGELY, *Consul*.

NANTES, FRANCE, *July 14, 1904.*

NICE.

(From United States Vice and Acting Consul Piatti, Nice, France.)

COUNTRIES MARKETING GOODS.

The countries marketing goods in this district are England, Italy, Spain, Greece, Turkey, Russia, Sweden, Austria, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Algeria, Tunis, and Germany. It should be remarked that the published figures of imports into Nice do not represent the total trade done here, as very many invoices of foreign goods sold here come through second and third hands—through merchants in the larger French towns or agents having stocks in hand, and sending their salesmen or selling by correspondence.

HOW TRADE IS CONDUCTED.

A number of German firms sell their goods, all charges and duty paid, delivered in the establishment of the buyer. Such firms have their broker at the town of entry, who clears the goods and then ships them direct to the buyer. I need not point out to what an extent this very intelligent method of proceeding facilitates the selling by salesmen and agents or the aid it gives them to compete with rival firms of other countries.

CREDITS OR MERCANTILE RATINGS.

The general terms of credit in this district are three months to firms classed as A 1, with $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 per cent discount for cash payments.

The large credit agencies established in Lyon and Paris have correspondents here, and they report the financial standing of individuals, companies, and firms. Their charge for a summary statement of, say, ten words varies from 10 to 25 cents. Longer descriptions, with data touching the persons inquired about, are charged for in accordance with the quantity and nature of details required.

ATTILIO PIATTI, *Vice and Acting Consul.*

NICE, FRANCE, *August 8, 1904.*

RHEIMS.

(*From United States Consul Prickitt, Rheims, France.*)

Some of the products of nearly every country are marketed in Rheims. Much of the trade is indirect, as, for example, tea, which while largely bought direct from the Orient is yet received in considerable quantities through British merchants.

There are no large cities nor ports of entry in this consular district. Consequently, direct foreign imports, except in certain articles like coal and lumber, are not large. The goods are bought generally by correspondence, or by means of commercial travelers connected with wholesale houses or general agencies established at Paris. These grant from three to six months' credit to well-known houses.

There are no credit agencies other than branches or agencies of the great banking institutions of France, such as the Crédit Lyonnais, the Crédit Foncier, the Société Générale and the Comptoir National d'Escompte. These do not publish commercial reports and books giving the financial ratings of business firms, as is done in the United States by R. G. Dun & Co., or Bradstreet, but they will, if desired, furnish confidential information to their customers as to the reliability of any company, firm, or individual, with the understanding that there is no guaranty as to its correctness.

WM. A. PRICKITT, *Consul.*

RHEIMS, FRANCE, *July 30, 1904.*

ROUBAIX.

(*From United States Consul Atwell, Roubaix, France.*)

Great Britain, Belgium, Russia, Italy, the Eastern countries, the United States, Canada, Argentina, and New Zealand are the principal foreign countries marketing goods in this consular district, the Department of the North.

Wool is mostly purchased by personal visits of buyers to Australia, Argentina, and South Africa. Other purchases are usually made by correspondence, through visiting salesmen, or through branch houses at some central point, such as Paris.

The usual terms of credit are net cash, with 3 per cent discount; thirty days, with 2 per cent discount; sixty and ninety days, net. Extension of time payment can be mutually arranged, although seldom resorted to. The only American credit agency here is Dun's. Banks generally give the standing of firms and companies. Their reports are substantial and are generally to be relied upon. Credit agencies report on the financial standing of individuals, firms, and companies.

W. P. ATWELL, *Consul*.

ROUBAIX, FRANCE, *July 15, 1904.*

ROUEN.

(*From United States Consul Haynes, Rouen, France.*)

COUNTRIES MARKETING GOODS.

The United States, England, continental countries, and the French colonies market goods in this district. The first named sells agricultural implements, wheat, oats, corn, and some wood. England enters at this port a million tons of coal annually. Spain, Italy, Tunis, Algeria, and Greece send fruits and wines; Russia sends oil and wheat, and Austria, Norway, and Sweden furnish some 250,000 tons of wood regularly.

HOW TRADE IS CONDUCTED.

Only a very small per cent of the merchandise entering this port remains here. Most of it is forwarded to Paris or other interior ports, being entered at Rouen on account of the excellent inland shipping facilities therefrom. These goods enter by cargo, and sales are in most cases effected by mail. Wine merchants sometimes have agents, but, as the wine enters mostly for blending purposes and is sold in the interior, the agents generally frequent Paris.

Apart from these goods entering by cargo much comes from abroad and is retailed, such as hardware, dry goods, and groceries. The United States enters canned goods, ice-cream freezers, refrigerators, cash registers, radiators, typewriters, etc., and, as far as this district is concerned, has no serious competitor except in the case of the canned goods, many of which come from Nantes and other French fish and meat packing centers.

Very few German commodities are sold in this district. From England are imported tennis balls, rackets, soaps, linoleum, kitchen uten-

sils, woolen goods, medicinal preparations, etc. Other countries, with the exception of the goods mentioned as entering by cargo, export little or nothing to this city. None of these articles enter direct, all being brought from Paris. The buyer usually orders from the Parisian commercial traveler, or by mail, or visits Paris himself.

CREDITS.

The general terms of credit in this district, as in all France, are from ten to ninety days. Naturally any departure from this custom involves misunderstanding, and the American rule of requiring cash payments often hinders the opening or extension of trade relations. Payments in this city are effected by bank credits or drafts accompanied by documents, bills of lading, etc. The French buyer or seller, unlike the American, regards the services of a broker as indispensable.

The principal banks in Rouen are Banque de France, Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris, Crédit Lyonnais, Crédit Foncier de France, Comptoir d'Escompt de Rouen, Comptoir F. de Cooman, and Société Générale. The first four of these are branches of Parisian banks.

MERCANTILE RATINGS.

The following agencies at Rouen report the financial standing of individuals, companies, and firms: Godard & Marc, 61 rue Vicomté; Le Batteux, 6 rue Guillaume-le-Conquérant; M. Leterrier, 28 rue Jeanne d'Arc; Paillotin Frères, 96 rue de la République; M. Prevost, 97 rue Bons-Enfants. It may be added that R. G. Dun & Co., from their Paris office, cover all France.

THORNWELL HAYNES, *Consul*.

ROUEN, FRANCE, *September 23, 1904.*

[From data of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.]

Exports, by articles, from the United States to France in the fiscal years ended June 30, 1893, 1897, 1901, 1902, and 1903.

Articles.	1893.	1897.	1901.	1902.	1903.
DOMESTIC EXPORTS.					
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Agricultural implements.....	309,991	623,956	2,068,277	2,101,697	2,789,256
Art works: Paintings and statuary.....	31,534	77,624	123,501	26,578	58,462
Books, maps, engravings, etchings, and other printed matter.....	28,169	44,613	84,300	74,098	78,348
Breadstuffs:					
Corn.....	596,664	2,113,628	1,950,546	189,730	1,020,309
Oats.....	86,131	912,325	1,515,856	649,645	649,645
Wheat.....	6,010,911	185,006	871,237	2,431,393	2,381,162
All other.....	15,013	179,604	160,810	67,192	69,744
Cars, carriages, other articles, and parts of:					
For steam and other railways.....		1,150	142,282	95,386	3,904
Cycles, and parts of.....		262,606	162,828	207,180	158,810
All other, and parts of.....	6,538	24,926	64,716	77,383	117,322

Exports, by articles, from the United States to France in the fiscal years ended June 30, 1893, 1897, 1901, 1902, and 1903—Continued.

Articles.	1893.	1897.	1901.	1902.	1903.
DOMESTIC EXPORTS—continued.					
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, and medicines	81,306	80,712	215,488	143,049	95,154
Coal, bituminous	72,080	3,985	576,845	422,565	22,361
Copper: Ingots, bars, plates, and old	1,441,563	6,272,952	7,232,208	6,701,381	6,996,693
Cotton, and manufactures of:					
Unmanufactured	24,094,276	26,110,302	34,964,658	31,771,969	35,564,079
Waste			96,698	40,893	68,495
Manufactures of	12,697	43,725	34,602	28,664	24,912
Fertilizers	223,926	279,006	473,552	432,045	476,329
Fibers, vegetable and textile grasses, man- ufactures of	32,196	20,718	37,627	8,268	38,845
Fruits and nuts:					
Apples, dried	48,457	40,483	24,440	27,763	167,739
Prunes			2,655	65,845	907,290
All other	62,938	260,897	175,050	158,330	871,977
Furs and fur skins	7,443	1,025	72,648	208,430	179,828
Grease, grease scraps, and all soap stock	40,620	1,045,027	366,578	422,757	351,916
Hair, and manufactures of	19,325	10,678	3,402	18,299	12,274
Hides and skins, other than furs	337,695	404,728	18,520	18,542	15,599
India rubber, manufactures of	93,451	93,159	233,424	232,144	230,932
Instruments, etc., for scientific purposes	36,784	298,133	877,581	108,769	153,364
Iron and steel, and manufactures of:					
Builders' hardware, saws, and tools	64,540	135,506	338,870	277,382	371,791
Machinery	301,611	967,557	2,170,355	1,316,963	1,450,963
All other	62,011	227,625	296,127	254,956	194,159
Leather, and manufactures of	65,654	215,757	613,547	583,274	737,759
Musical instruments	4,675	11,217	41,200	48,680	13,699
Nickel: Oxide and matte		106,177	122,755	141,087	29,626
Oil cake and oil-cake meal	122,966	266,749	600,226	820,543	541,985
Oils:					
Animal	21,696	43,383	32,734	55,794	45,122
Mineral—					
Crude	2,709,222	4,584,562	5,160,690	4,272,144	4,207,912
Refined	1,168,280	932,938	1,669,106	1,833,205	2,202,983
Vegetable—					
Cotton-seed	450,036	2,601,526	3,371,083	2,731,926	2,593,965
All other	35,206	46,668	26,638	23,721	15,406
Paints, pigments, and colors	13,502	49,533	144,659	133,129	149,274
Paper, and manufactures of	12,417	36,840	42,210	40,692	39,811
Provisions, comprising meat and dairy products:					
Beef, canned	223,508	91,471	68,089	82,307	40,164
Tallow	426,619	675,424	606,123	157,177	433,941
Bacon	993	133,066	196,782	75,048	44,796
Hams	11,157	30,078	65,310	18,572	14,843
Lard	1,490,243	1,032,286	1,148,518	667,164	427,708
All other	298,740	561,465	379,091	516,480	511,124
Seeds	227,473	122,565	240,637	507,242	341,801
Tobacco: Leaf	2,859,543	1,832,903	3,062,819	2,654,924	2,588,547
Varnish	12,793	24,627	43,822	42,556	51,175
Whalebone	164,595	175,203	276,369	393,100	409,350
Wood, and manufactures of:					
Timber and unmanufactured wood—					
Sawed	105,932	155,666	578,264	261,589	398,810
Hewn	23,331	15,233	34,123	35,255	19,634
Logs and other	61,304	58,268	138,324	122,456	117,778
Lumber—					
Boards, deals, and planks	291,280	273,068	749,239	475,732	422,554
Staves	79,603	352,529	752,612	1,356,173	1,408,044
All other	6,489	33,556	133,754	56,916	136,288
Manufactures of—					
Wood pulp			44,842	40,574	59,371
All other	200,285	305,373	287,236	235,396	326,885
Zinc: Pigs, bars, plates, and sheets	13,600	48,716	30,809		
All other articles:					
All other	787,484	697,209	923,771	2,220,952	1,890,604
Total domestic exports	46,006,448	57,287,631	76,431,378	69,244,213	75,062,466
Total foreign exports	612,690	1,306,910	2,283,549	2,268,771	2,192,773
Total exports of merchandise	46,619,138	57,594,541	78,714,927	71,512,984	77,255,239

Value of trade of the United States with France, 1865 to 1904.

Year ended June 30—	Imports.	Exports.	Year ended June 30—	Imports.	Exports.
1865.....	\$6,684,029	\$11,078,611	1885.....	\$56,935,352	\$46,708,950
1866.....	22,922,065	51,312,103	1886.....	63,417,430	41,681,746
1867.....	29,386,239	34,417,166	1887.....	68,107,624	57,257,670
1868.....	25,315,605	26,416,991	1888.....	71,365,266	39,210,308
1869.....	30,284,531	33,114,408	1889.....	69,566,618	46,120,041
1870.....	42,731,138	45,556,247	1890.....	77,672,311	49,977,024
1871.....	28,099,279	26,652,608	1891.....	76,688,995	60,693,190
1872.....	43,140,156	31,432,118	1892.....	68,554,793	99,126,707
1873.....	33,977,200	33,781,506	1893.....	76,076,215	46,619,138
1874.....	51,691,896	42,964,311	1894.....	47,549,974	55,315,511
1875.....	59,773,148	33,632,727	1895.....	61,580,509	45,149,137
1876.....	50,959,577	39,792,702	1896.....	66,266,967	47,040,660
1877.....	47,556,292	45,139,918	1897.....	67,530,231	57,594,541
1878.....	43,378,870	53,319,138	1898.....	52,730,848	95,459,290
1879.....	50,684,601	89,669,627	1899.....	62,146,056	60,596,899
1880.....	69,344,412	100,063,044	1900.....	73,012,085	83,335,097
1881.....	69,806,375	94,197,451	1901.....	75,458,739	78,714,927
1882.....	88,897,606	50,010,818	1902.....	82,880,036	71,512,984
1883.....	97,989,164	58,682,223	1903.....	90,050,172	77,285,239
1884.....	70,842,413	50,899,885	1904.....	81,410,347	84,279,480



DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

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DECEMBER 2, 1904

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1904

FOREIGN BREADSTUFFS AND PROVISIONS IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

(From United States Consul Boyle, Liverpool, England.)

WHEAT AND FLOUR.

There are three or four noticeable points of the present condition of the wheat and flour trade of this country: (1) The decreasing supply from the United States; (2) the increased production of flour in England, and particularly in Liverpool; (3) the decreasing supply of native wheat and its admitted relative inferiority in quality, and (4) the increasing importations from Russia and Argentina.

It is well known that for some months past the British Government has been making, through a royal commission of which the Prince of Wales is chairman, a most thorough inquiry into the question of the sources of supply of food, and particularly wheat and flour, with special reference to the situation should this country go to war. It is understood that the evidence secured by this commission will not be made public for the present at any rate, and it is not known whether even the commission's report will be published for general distribution. There seems to be a consensus of British expert opinion that this country must in the not distant future look elsewhere than to the United States for its main supply of wheat. Canada has been doing much self-advertising as the "granary of the Empire," but for the present it will have to content itself with anticipation, and indeed the Canadian importations for the first six months of this year show a decided diminution as compared with the first six months of 1903. A marked feature of the trade of the United Kingdom this year has been the increasing imports from Russia and from Argentina as an offset to the great falling off of the imports from the United States and Canada.^a The expectation, however, is that both the United States and Canada will come to the front again.

Liverpool now claims to rank second (Minneapolis being first) in the world's milling trade, the Birkenhead district being included in Liverpool. The flour produced here is called "English flour," but as a matter of fact very little native wheat is used. It is estimated that England only produces now 22 per cent of the wheat necessary

^a The imports of American flour into the United Kingdom in 1903 was nearly \$2,000,000 greater than in 1902, although less than for the years immediately preceding 1902. The total imports of flour into the United Kingdom in 1903 amounted to 11,568,175 barrels, valued at \$47,320,152, of which 9,270,651 barrels, valued at \$37,073,440, were imported from the United States. See tabulated statement immediately following Consul Boyle's report.—BUREAU OF STATISTICS.

for the flour consumed in this country. English wheat has a poor reputation for strength, and it is getting worse all the time. The strength of English wheat is not only below that of most foreign wheat, particularly that from Dakota, Kansas, and Manitoba, but its deterioration has been steady for the last twenty years; and now it is always mixed with foreign wheat, particularly with wheat from Hungary. The English millers thoroughly understand the art of mixing grain for the production of fine flour, and this enables them to compete with American flour. New mills, containing the most up-to-date machinery, are being erected throughout England, and a large mill is soon to be in operation at London.

MEAT AND CATTLE.

This country is yearly becoming more and more dependent upon outside sources for its meat, and by this is meant every variety of animal food. The value of cattle and meat of all kinds annually imported into Great Britain is placed at the enormous amount of \$235,000,000, of which \$190,000,000 is the value of meat. The most noticeable feature of this trade, of which Liverpool is the chief center, is the increasing quantity of chilled fresh meat that is being imported.

The trade in American live cattle shows a tendency to decrease. In 1897 there were 416,299 head of cattle imported from the United States; in 1903 there were 301,747 head, more than half of which (165,956) came to Liverpool. It is worth noting that of the total imports last year, 12,741 cattle of American origin came via Canadian ports. The total value of the American cattle imports into this country in 1903 was \$26,968,885. Imports of live cattle from Canada have more than doubled during the last five years, the value being \$16,486,590 in 1903.

In live sheep the supply from the United States in 1903 was 171,386, of which 152,199 came to Liverpool. This is a great falling off as compared with the two previous years. Imports of live sheep from Canada last year show an increase of over 28,000.

In the chilled meat trade Argentina is forging rapidly to the front. The total imports from the United States in 1903 of chilled beef were valued at \$27,324,934, about the same as five years ago. The value of the imports from Argentina in 1903 was \$10,268,345—just ten times more than the value of the imports from that country five years ago. The increase of the Argentine frozen-meat trade can be partly attributed to the improved quality of the stock, to better methods of handling, as well as to increased facilities for transportation; but is principally owing to the fact that the importation of live stock from that country is still prohibited in England.

The imports of chilled mutton are steadily increasing. The total in 1889 was valued at \$27,196,585, while last year it had increased to

\$38,085,531. The imports of chilled mutton from the United States are very small, New Zealand being the principal source of supply, the value of the imports therefrom in 1899 being \$12,457,020, increasing last year to \$20,766,345. Here again Argentina shows its wonderful capabilities as a source of food supply for the British market. In 1903 the value of Argentine chilled mutton imported into this country was \$13,019,655, almost double the value of the imports five years ago.

The imports from Canada of chilled beef are now practically nil. Five years ago the value of imports from Canada was \$891,420, but in 1903 the value was only \$44,720.

It is curious to note that the English people are not eating as much ham as formerly. Whereas, in 1899 the value of the hams imported from the United States was \$18,905,035, the value last year fell to \$12,655,816, and the value of the total imports fell from \$20,472,500 in 1899 to \$14,893,336 in 1903. On the other hand, there is a steady increase in the consumption of bacon. In 1899 the total value of the imports of bacon into this country was \$51,998,010, and in 1903 \$66,277,545. While the United States sends more bacon to this country than any other country, it does not seem to be holding its own. Thus, in 1901 the value of the imports of bacon from the United States was \$46,279,255, while in 1903 the value fell to \$35,870,621. The greatest competitor the United States has in bacon is Denmark. In 1899 the imports from Denmark were valued \$14,728,785, and there was a steady rise each year, until in 1903 the value was \$21,470,085. Imports of bacon from Canada also show a steady increase. In 1903 the value of the Canadian imports was \$8,458,435, more than double the imports five years ago. These figures are interesting as indicating the peculiar taste of the British people. Americans often remark that the best bacon over here tastes more like ham than bacon such as is commonly eaten in the United States. Bacon for the English market must be cured in a particular way, the requirements being that it must not be strong or too salty, and it must not be too fat. American exporters are bringing their bacon more and more to the English taste, but still they do not seem to be able to do so as well as the Danes and the Canadians. The principal difficulty is generally said to be owing to the different methods of feeding.

The foregoing figures do not give a complete idea of the enormous consumption of bacon in this country, for the reason that it does not include importations of bacon from Ireland into Great Britain; and the trade in Irish bacon is yearly increasing.

DEAD RABBIT IMPORTS.

One of the most interesting items in connection with the meat imports is that of dead rabbits. In this country rabbits are an article of food of much greater extent than in the United States. Rabbits are cheap and are considered to be both nutritious and digestible.

They are a standard article of food among the people. In 1903 53,273,240 pounds of rabbits, of a value of \$3,552,767, were imported into this country. Australia alone sent last year rabbits to the value of \$1,348,000. In a lecture recently delivered by one of the commercial agents of Australia it was stated that the great Australian pest of rabbits has been alleviated to some extent owing to the fact that it was possible to ship them to England.

CHEESE.

Unquestionably the falling off of the trade in American cheese in this country is chiefly attributable to the bad reputation it gained through the cupidity of some manufacturers and shippers in the past, who sold "filled" or "margarin cheese" as genuine cream cheese. From that reputation American cheese has never recovered, although the fraudulent practice has long ago been stamped out. As a matter of fact, there is plenty of American cheese sold here which is just as good as Canadian cheese, and even as good as the famous native Cheshire cheese. Indeed, it is said that much of the cheese sold as genuine Cheshire is really a high-grade American cheese. However this may be, it is undoubtedly the fact that when sold on its merits American cheese can now hold its own. A few days ago the Wirral board of guardians (managers of the public relief of the poor), in Cheshire, across the river Mersey, opposite Liverpool, discussed the question of supplying cheese to the inmates of the public institutions, which had been referred to a committee. The committee reported that samples of Cheshire and American cheese had been placed before them, and that the American product was the best sample, and on the basis of quality the committee would have chosen it. In view, however, of the strong feeling of the board in favor of Cheshire cheese, as a home production, the committee recommended that Cheshire and American cheese should be ordered alternately, week by week, during the ensuing six months. One member of the board objected, stating that never before had they purchased American cheese, and that it was their policy to support home industries. Another member replied that he did not see the use of supporting home industries if they gave the worst results, and that the American cheese he had sampled was much better than the Cheshire cheese. Pursuant to the recommendation of the committee, it was determined to take American and Cheshire cheese alternately.

The following item is from the Liverpool Daily Post of October 1, 1904:

Arising out of a summons against a firm of grocers and provision merchants at Hastings and St. Leonards is a question as to the quality of cheese exported from Canada. The summons was against Messrs. Fuller & Swatland, who were alleged to have sold "margarin cheese" without a properly printed wrapper. The case for the sanitary com-

mittee of the town council was that the sample of cheese taken by the inspector contained 20 per cent of fat not obtained from milk, and that it was what is commonly known as loaded or margarin cheese. Mr. F. Beck, of London, who defended on behalf of the grocers' federation, asked that the third sample should be forwarded to the government laboratory. Mr. Beck further intimated that the Canadian government desired that the fullest inquiries should be made, and that witnesses would come over from the colony to give evidence at that court. The cheese was purchased by the defendants from a wholesale firm, who received it from the largest importers of Canadian cheese in London, and it was sold in exactly the same state in which it was shipped in Canada. The magistrates granted the application of the defense, and decided that the case should come on again on November 24.

Thus, at about the same time, there is in England an official indorsement of American cheese, and a prosecution growing out of alleged fraudulent misrepresentation as to the quality of Canadian cheese. Without indulging in what might be unfair inferences, it certainly is proper to remark that now is a very opportune time for manufacturers and shippers of American cheese to make a renewed effort to recover their lost position in the British market—and the market is a magnificent one. The quantity of foreign and colonial cheese consumed by the British people is enormous, and is growing, with some fluctuations, from year to year. The following table shows how the total imports have increased, and how the American share of the trade has decreased, while the imports from Canada have increased in the last ten years:

Value of imports of cheese into Great Britain from all countries and from the United States and Canada in 1894 and 1903.

Year.	All countries.	United States.	Canada.
1894.....	\$27,374,700	\$8,042,025	\$13,444,730
1903.....	34,331,757	4,638,821	24,115,450

The quantity of "margarin cheese" or "imitation cheese" imported as such into this country is trifling, and is getting smaller each year. Ten years ago the total value was but \$50,680, and last year it was only \$5,395, of which the United States contributed \$5,090.

BUTTER.

On the other hand there are enormous importations of "margarin" or "imitation butter" (sold as such). Last year the value was \$11,568,090, of which The Netherlands sent \$10,942,305 worth. The United States sent only \$4,505. There would appear to be a good opening for American enterprise in supplying "margarin" to this market.

As to pure butter, the imports from both the United States and Canada are falling off for some reason. There was a steady growth

of American imports up to 1897, when the value was \$3,167,745; since then there has been a falling off almost every year, and last year the value was only \$927,934, a decrease of over \$300,000, as compared with 1902. Canada last year sent butter to the value of \$4,331,245, as compared with \$6,636,725 in 1902. The total value of butter imported into the United Kingdom from all sources in 1903 was \$101,216,908, and of this great amount Denmark (including its colonies, Iceland and Greenland) sent about one-half. In view of the growing importance of Argentina in the matter of supplying the British market with farm produce, it is worth noting that that country is yearly increasing her British trade in butter. Ten years ago the value of the Argentine butter sent to this market was only \$130; five years ago it was \$501,660, and last year it was \$1,989,860. New Zealand is also sending an increased quantity of butter, the value last year being \$6,225,110, more than double what it was five years ago.

JAMES BOYLE, *Consul.*

LIVERPOOL, ENGLAND, *October 7, 1904.*

The following table, prepared in the Bureau of Statistics from British official publications, shows the quantities and values of the principal articles composing the breadstuffs and provisions, including live animals for food purposes, imported into the United Kingdom during the calendar year 1903, together with the imports of the same from the United States, as given in said official publications:

Quantity and value of breadstuffs and provisions imported into the United Kingdom from all countries and from the United States in 1903.

Kind.	Quantity of Imports.		Value of Imports.	
	All countries.	United States.	All countries.	United States.
LIVE ANIMALS.				
Oxen and bulls.....number..	519,794	301,645	\$44,588,280	\$26,266,335
Cows.....do.....	2,447	102	220,666	8,920
Sheep and lambs.....do.....	364,241	171,386	26,274,166	12,867,805
Total.....do.....	876,482	473,133	71,083,082	39,148,060
CEREALS, FLOUR, MEAL, ETC.				
Wheat.....bushels..	164,511,200	46,662,787	145,703,940	44,098,281
Barley.....do.....	64,665,067	6,152,153	35,144,836	3,984,710
Oats.....do.....	50,680,599	2,055,477	21,250,513	866,649
Rye.....do.....	2,302,370	788,164	1,473,094	547,378
Buckwheat.....do.....	308,008	26,615	203,186	19,408
Peas, split.....do.....	3,270,856	325,573	3,190,754	316,371
Peas, other.....do.....	145,160	7,951	170,819	9,475
Beans, haricot.....do.....			2,894,760	
Beans, other, including split.....do.....			948,179	46,752
Maize.....do.....	100,198,656	37,352,020	59,662,519	22,798,175
Rice, and rice meal, and flour.....pounds..	519,678,776		9,806,864	
Wheat flour.....barrels..	11,568,175	9,270,651	47,320,152	37,073,440
Oatmeal.....pounds..	43,628,928	26,176,864	962,414	576,812
Maize meal.....do.....	66,126,592	55,382,912	859,331	644,865
Starch and farina.....do.....	159,355,392	43,290,464	4,628,518	1,448,567
Bran and pollard.....do.....	30,482,032	1,156,288	313,641	12,166
Total.....do.....			334,583,510	109,428,084

Quantity and value of breadstuffs and provisions imported into the United Kingdom from all countries and from the United States in 1905—Continued.

Kind.	Quantity of imports.		Value of imports.	
	All countries.	United States.	All countries.	United States.
DAIRY PRODUCTS.				
Butter.....pounds..	454,797,728	4,749,360	\$101,216,908	\$927,934
Cheese.....do....	291,691,096	40,422,592	34,381,757	4,638,821
Total.....	746,488,824	45,171,952	135,548,665	5,566,755
MEATS AND LARD.				
Lard.....pounds..	194,072,480	178,083,248	18,837,122	17,391,784
Lard, imitation.....do..	20,496,656	19,852,560	1,492,229	1,450,626
Bacon.....do....	578,926,666	324,073,384	66,277,545	35,870,621
Beef, fresh.....do....	465,875,872	301,719,040	40,713,825	27,324,984
Beef, salted.....do....	19,453,504	18,499,712	1,196,237	1,130,454
Hams.....do....	144,829,184	105,076,928	14,893,336	12,655,816
Mutton, fresh.....do..	449,861,664	4,688,666	38,035,531	387,070
Pork, fresh.....do....	79,064,528	14,861,840	7,569,657	1,556,499
Rabbits, dead.....do..	58,273,240		3,522,767	
All other meats, salted or fresh.....do..	74,285,232	20,071,744	5,839,252	1,380,947
Meats, preserved otherwise than by salting:				
Beef.....pounds..	52,932,880	31,901,368	7,857,394	3,412,385
Mutton.....do....	5,505,248	714,784	517,007	72,696
Other.....do....	27,528,928	18,530,944	3,978,865	2,338,115
Poultry and game (alive or dead).....do..			5,850,935	1,129,354
Total meats and lard.....			216,160,702	106,100,301
Grand total, principal articles.....			757,325,969	260,238,150

AMERICAN TRADE IN STANBRIDGE, QUEBEC.

(From United States Commercial Agent Johnson, Stanbridge, Quebec.)

A few years ago such a thing as a thrashing machine was unknown in Canada, and even a fanning mill was considered a luxury. Those were the days of flails, reaping hooks, homemade pitchforks, three-cornered harrows, and plows with wooden moldboards. Thrashing machines have now been brought to great perfection, and many of the most modern of them are in use in this district. American manufacturers, keeping pace with the great strides the farmers were taking in the matter of agricultural implements and machines, have captured the markets in spite of Canadian competition and a tariff of 30 per cent, and now supply the farmers here with binders, rakes, mowers, corn binders, headers, huskers, shredders, corn shockers, reapers, and knife grinders.

Trade in American goods in general has increased more in this consular district than in any other district of Quebec. Our people control the fruit markets as well as the coffee output, and the Standard Oil Company, which is known here as the Imperial Oil Company, has tanks all through the district from which oil is delivered by wagon to places remote from railway stations. American coal is exclusively used in all the factories. Extracts used for tanning leather at the tannery at Stanbridge come from New York. Steel wire employed in

the manufacture of knitting needles, white lead and wax oil used in the Bedford Paint Works, ornaments for stoves, molding sand, grindstones, ash lumber for handles, etc., are all imported from the United States. Breakfast foods are mostly of American make; evaporators, used here in the spring, are manufactured in Vermont, and most of the steel rails come from Pennsylvania.

I notice that American salesmen have joined the Commercial Men's Union, which is recognized by the railroads of Canada, and thereby receive a reduction in car fare. A still wiser step is the employment of salesmen who speak English and French, which are both essential in the Province of Quebec.

At Cowansville, where the wooden bridge was carried away this spring, an American firm received the contract for replacing it with an iron structure.

The Grand Trunk Railroad recently gave a large order to an American firm for the construction of seven or more locomotives.

RAILWAY EXTENSION.

The Central Vermont Railway has raised the grade of its road and laid heavier steel rails. The Canadian Pacific has employed civil engineers to survey a new route from Farnham to Sherbrooke, in order to avoid the heavy grades over which the road now goes; the result is that the new road will go by way of Brigham and the Bolton Pass to Sherbrooke. The Grand Trunk has acquired the Canada Atlantic Railway, which passes through this consular district. The Canada Atlantic has been one of the successful railways in Canada. It has developed a large grain traffic over a new route, as well as serving a considerable local trade. The projected Grand Trunk Pacific created a main reason for its acquisition, and it will give that great road a short connection between Montreal, with all its traffic possibilities, and North Bay, which seems to have been fixed on as a main point on the new road, and it will do away with the necessity of constructing a line through a less favorable traffic-producing country.

FELIX S. S. JOHNSON,
Commercial Agent.

STANBRIDGE, QUEBEC, *October 19, 1904.*

AMERICAN TRADE IN CARTHAGENA, SPAIN.

(From United States Consul Bouron, Carthagena, Spain.)

Direct American trade with Carthagena is practically nil, being confined to the importation of an occasional cargo of pitch pine.

I continue to receive letters and circulars from manufacturers who desire to increase their trade in this district, and I give them all the

information I can, but that alone will not create business. I have not seen an American commercial traveler here for at least two years. As there is no direct communication between this district and American ports, any goods coming here from the United States must necessarily be received through the courtesy of European shippers, which entails the payment of two freights. Then, again, practically all Americans demand cash against shipping documents, and quote free on board at the American port, while the Spaniard prefers to buy on a cost, freight, and insurance basis, getting two, three, or four months' credit, which European exporters give without hesitation.

Another important item is the absence of any treaty of commerce between the United States and Spain, in consequence of which American goods have to pay, in all cases, the maximum tariff rate. In this connection the so-called transportation tax should not be overlooked. It is a graduated tax, based on the class of voyage, whether coasting, European, or over-sea, the last being the highest. In practice it amounts to a discriminating tax on American trade.

Commercial travelers do not need to have licenses. A passport or the Spanish *cédula personal* is obligatory, but, as a matter of fact, its production is never demanded in the case of respectable people.

JOSEPH BOWRON, *Consul*.

CARTHAGENA, SPAIN, *October 6, 1904.*

AMERICAN TRADE WITH SAXONY.

(*From United States Consul-General Cole, Dresden, Germany.*)

The value of exports from the consular district of Dresden to the United States was \$1,816,223 for the year ended June 30, 1904, a decrease of \$212,897 as compared with the preceding year. It is impossible to obtain an estimate of the value of the few direct importations to this consular district from the United States. Inquiries relating thereto are returned to me with instructions to apply to Berlin for the information. In addition, the chamber of commerce in this city and all kindred associations in Saxony are prohibited, by special act of Parliament, from giving any information to the representatives of foreign countries, and this is strictly enforced, often to the detriment of local dealers.

The depression in the manufacturing and commercial interests of Germany during the past few years still prevails in Saxony. Although improvement was noticeable for a time, the present outlook is gloomy.

The summer just ended has been severe, and no such heat and drought have been experienced in Saxony for many years. This has had a disastrous effect on agriculture, particularly upon potatoes, the poor man's crop; but all farm products have suffered to an alarming extent. The water in the Elbe has not been so low in a hundred years;

navigation was entirely suspended in July, and only partially resumed during the past week. This has paralyzed an important traffic, besides compelling the transportation by rail of heavy, coarse freight, greatly enhancing the cost, particularly in the item of coal for steam and house purposes. The prospect is therefore gloomy, and a hard winter is predicted. But for the trade with the United States, which decreased last quarter as compared with the corresponding period of last year, the situation would be deplorable.

Each mail brings requests from manufacturers in the United States for a list of dealers in certain lines of goods in this city, which I always send. These are followed by circulars and catalogues, printed in English with prices in American currency, which have little, if any, effect. Besides, prices are usually quoted at the factory, and the German people are now aware of the expensive rail transportation to seaboard cities, with cartage, commissions, etc., and for these reasons prefer to purchase American goods at Bremen or Hamburg, when they can determine the cost laid down in Dresden.

All lines of railway and branches in the United States are constantly patrolled by commercial travelers; first to secure customers and next to retain them. If our people desire to increase their trade in Saxony the same plan should be adopted. Manufacturers in France and England recognize this fact, and their agents visit Dresden frequently.

During the winter, which is the social season, the American colony in Dresden numbers usually from 1,200 to 1,500 persons, who are constant customers for the American-made goods displayed in shop windows.

I would be glad to see direct importations instead of purchases from the importing houses in Bremen and Hamburg, but this can not be accomplished by correspondence.

CHARLES L. COLE, *Consul-General*.

DRESDEN, GERMANY, *October 19, 1904.*

MEXICAN FREE ZONE.

(From Vice-Consul Bonnet, Ciudad Porfirio Diaz, Mexico.)

The "Free Zone" is a strip of Mexican territory 12 miles broad, extending along the entire frontier between the United States and Mexico. It was first established as far as Matamoras in 1855, when goods were admitted free of duty. In 1885 it was extended along the entire border, and duties, amounting to about 11 per cent of the national duties, including fees for certificates, were assessed. A reduction of 89 per cent in duties admits of considerable importation of goods from Europe, which cross the United States in bond and then come into direct competition with American goods in the stores of the "Free Zone."

The imports of European manufactures consist chiefly of dry goods of a high class, among which are woollens from England, silks and cashmeres from France, and cutlery from Germany. It is claimed by the European importers that European prices are lower, the quality of the goods superior, and the terms better (this latter is certainly true) than ours. But the only advantage possessed by European over American manufacturers in the Free Zone is that the former grant better terms, giving from six to twelve months' credit at 6 per cent interest, as against thirty, sixty, and ninety days from American houses at a higher rate of interest. As a rule, credit can be safely given. The Mexican merchant is "good pay," and will keep up his credit at all hazards.

Goods manufactured within the Free Zone when shipped across the Free Zone line into Mexican territory must pay the full national duty the same as foreign goods. The very low tariff rates charged on goods entering the zone—almost no duty—apply only to goods consumed in the Free Zone, for which reason there are no factories therein.

JOHN A. BONNET, *Vice-Consul in Charge.*

CIUDAD PORFIRIO DIAZ, MEXICO, *October 20, 1904.*

HOP INDUSTRY IN ENGLAND.

(*From United States Consul Stephens, Plymouth, England.*)

At a special meeting of the Hop Growers' Association at Hereford on the 12th instant, resolutions were passed asserting that the decline of the English hop industry was largely due to the free importation of hops from abroad; that imported hops should be marked under the merchandise-marks act, and urging the Government to levy an import duty that will save the industry from destruction.

The outlook in England is far from encouraging, and to those who know the trade best it appears that hops will be imported in larger quantities and that their growth in England must continue to decline. It is suggested that American growers follow the changing conditions of this industry.

The cultivation of hops in Great Britain is restricted to some six counties of England, the total area in hops outside these counties being only 188 acres, as compared with 47,611 acres within them.

The total production of hops this year, estimated at 282,330 hundredweight (31,620,960 pounds), is 138,738 hundredweight (15,538,656 pounds) less than the crop of 1903, although this year's acreage of hops was only 139 acres less than that of last year. The production for 1904 escapes being the lowest on record by the small quantity of 410 hundredweight. Every one of the hop counties registers a diminished output.

JOSEPH G. STEPHENS, *Consul.*

PLYMOUTH, ENGLAND, *October 14, 1904.*

MEXICAN NOTES.

(From United States Vice and Deputy Consul Luz, Veracruz, Mexico.)

Railroad construction in Yucatan, Mexico.—Señor Tomas E. Ramos, a Mexican citizen, has secured a concession for ninety-nine years authorizing him, or a company he may organize for the purpose, to construct and operate a line of narrow-gauge railroad from the municipality of Hunucma, in the State of Yucatan, to the port of Sisal. A public telegraph and telephone privilege is also granted under this concession. Construction is to be concluded within five years from date of contract, and during this time all necessary material will be admitted free of import duty.

Artificial silk in Mexico.—Señor Gaspar Salas, an engineer and the Mexican representative of La Sociedad Lionesa de Seda Artificial, Chardonnet process, has petitioned the Government for a concession under the law of December 14, 1898, giving special privileges to new industries. One million dollars will be invested in the erection of a plant for the manufacture of artificial silk.

Mahogany, dyewoods, etc., in Yucatan, Mexico.—Señor Rafael Peon has secured a ten years' concession granting him the privilege of cutting mahogany, cedar, dyewoods, and lumber, and of gathering chicle, gums, resin, and rubber. The lands upon which he is authorized to operate are nearly 700,000 acres of Government lands in the territory of Quintana Roo. Mr. Peon may be addressed at Merida, Yucatan.

A new substitute for rubber.—The Mexican Press mentions a plant called "guayule" as a substitute for rubber. Señor Lic. Carlos Aguirre, general representative of the company La Anglo-Mexicana, S. A., states that the company made numerous experiments in extracting from the shrub the gummy substance it contains and transforming it into rubber. When the success of these experiments was assured, the necessary patents were obtained and a small factory was established at Jimulco, State of Coahuila, which for about a year has been in operation, and \$150,000 Mexican currency has been invested. The erection of several similar works in the frontier States is now contemplated. One of these plants is expected to furnish employment to about 500 men, and "guayule" to the value of about \$100,000 Mexican currency has been contracted for. The company has petitioned the Government for the privileges accorded to new industries for ten years, in accordance with the law of December 18, 1903. Some \$400,000 Mexican currency is to be invested.

Concessions to steamship lines.—The agreement between the Harrison Line (The Charente Steamship Company, Limited, of Liverpool) and the Mexican Government has been extended for a term of three years from October 19, 1904, without changing any of the original con-

ditions of the concession. These vessels have no regular sailing schedule, but make about two trips a month. Their passenger accommodations are small, and the principal business is carrying freight between Liverpool and New Orleans by way of the West Indies, Colon, British Honduras, and Mexican gulf ports (Progreso, Veracruz, and Tampico). The agreement of the Munson Steamship Line to Cuba and Mexico, of New York, with the Government, has also been prolonged for six months from October 2, 1904. The vessels of this line are principally engaged in carrying freight between the United States, Cuba, and Mexico, and occasionally also a few passengers.

Canal construction in Mexico.—The La Compania Mexicana de Petróleo has obtained a concession to construct a navigable canal from lands of the company in the Canton de Ozuluama, State of Veracruz, to the Panuco River, which empties into the Gulf of Mexico at Tampico, State of Tamaulipas. The canal is to have a width on the bottom of 10 meters and a depth of water of at least 3 meters (1 meter=39.37 inches). After fifty years' operation the canal shall become the property of the Government.

ERNESTO LUX, *Vice and Deputy Consul.*

VERACRUZ, MEXICO, *October 26, 1904.*

BRITISH COLUMBIA AND MEXICO STEAMSHIP COMMUNICATION.

(*From United States Consul Smith, Victoria, British Columbia.*)

The contract for the new British steamship line between British Columbia and Mexico has finally been awarded. The successful bidders were Andrew Weir & Co., of Glasgow, Scotland. This firm agrees to put on first-class steamships, capable of carrying 4,500 tons of freight each and 50 first-class and from 300 to 400 steerage passengers. The negotiations have been completed by cable, with the aid of an authorized representative resident in Victoria. One of the members of the firm will be here early in November to conclude arrangements as to dates of sailings, ports of call, etc.

It is definitely arranged that the port of embarkation will be Vancouver, and that Victoria will be a port of call. As yet no positive steps have been taken regarding the calling of these vessels at any American port en route to Mazatlan and Acapulco, although correspondence is in progress to induce them to call at San Diego, Cal.

The steamers will carry the British flag and are to make monthly trips. It is expected that the first vessel will arrive in time to make the first sailing from Vancouver about January 15, 1905. The contract runs for five years, and the line receives subsidies from both the Canadian and Mexican Governments—\$50,000 per annum from each.

The great growth of the exports from Mexico to the United States, which increased from \$6,500,000 in 1880 to \$42,250,000 in 1903, has been largely the cause of subsidizing this line, and every effort will be put forth to divert a portion of Mexican trade from the United States to British Columbia.

ABRAHAM E. SMITH, *Consul*.

VICTORIA, BRITISH COLUMBIA, *October 25, 1904.*

IRON AND STEEL TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

(From United States Consul Boyle, Liverpool, England.)

The year 1903 was not on the whole as satisfactory as the two or three preceding years. When it is remembered, however, that since 1899 the iron and steel trade had been exceptionally good, a reaction was partly expected. This reaction became very manifest toward the close of 1903, and is attributed to the very decided change in the conditions of trade in the United States. The expansion that has been going on there, as well as in Germany, also brought about somewhat of a crisis. It is said that the production of the world has rapidly overrun the consumption, until it has been found necessary to halt. In 1899 the total production of pig iron throughout the world was 39,750,000 tons, and in 1903 it was estimated to be not less than 46,000,000 tons. The following table shows the production of the principal countries and indicates where the increase has taken place, the amounts for 1903 being estimates:

Production of pig iron in the United States, Great Britain, and Germany in 1899 and 1903.

Country.	1899.	1903.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
United States	13,620,713	18,500,000
Great Britain	9,305,519	8,500,000
Germany	8,029,305	10,000,000

It will be seen that while the pig-iron production of the United States and Germany has increased, that of England has decreased. The iron and steel trade of Great Britain, however, was as large as ever during 1903, as shown by the following figures:

Iron and steel trade of Great Britain in 1899 and 1903.

Kind.	1899.	1903.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Pig iron:		
Production	9,305,519	8,500,000
Imports	159,523	130,280
Exports	1,379,296	1,065,473
Retained for home use	8,154,296	7,464,807
Stocks, December 31	721,617	600,000
Exports of manufactured iron and steel	2,333,320	2,505,900
Imports of manufactured iron and steel	640,728	1,107,047

The export of manufactured iron and steel from the United Kingdom in 1903 was the largest for many years.

There was, however, a remarkable decrease in the export of tin plates and sheets from England to the United States in the years 1902 and 1903. During the year 1901, 75,822 tons were exported; in 1902 65,142 tons, and in 1903, 50,674 tons.

The exports of iron and steel from England during the six months ended June 30, 1904, have decreased as compared with the corresponding period of 1903.

JAMES BOYLE, *Consul.*

LIVERPOOL, ENGLAND, *October 7, 1904.*

VALUE OF COMMERCIAL TRAVELERS.

(*From United States Consul Hoke, Windsor, Nova Scotia.*)

If called upon to name the most efficient instrumentality to promote American trade interests in this consular district, I would say commercial travelers. Commercial travelers are not taxed in Windsor, and, while there are plenty of them representing Canadian merchants and manufacturers, there is scarcely one representing American markets or American merchants and manufacturers. The mail comes flooded with inquiries from all parts of the United States, representing all classes of merchants, manufacturers, and producers, asking the consul to furnish them purchasers for their respective goods and wares. Windsor furnishes a most desirable field for good American commercial travelers, drummers, or salesmen to put upon the Canadian market American goods that ought to readily find sale. A commercial traveler or sales agent ought to find profitable employment both for himself and for his firm, and for that matter he might represent a half dozen different products and still have no competing antagonism among them. The salesman or traveler is now the best agent between the producer and consumer; he studies and understands the wants and tastes of the people and knows how to meet their wants and gratify their tastes. The commercial traveler in Canada, at least in this district, can live and travel cheaper than he can anywhere in the United States. Samples, cards, circulars, and letters may do much to promote trade, but there is nothing that equals in value the personal appeals and persuasive words of an agent in person. The live, active traveler or salesman is the man to promote and advance the interests of American trade.

JOSEPH T. HOKE, *Consul.*

WINDSOR, NOVA SCOTIA, *October 20, 1904.*

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DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

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DAILY CONSULAR REPORTS

DECEMBER 3, 1904

STEAM SUPERHEATING APPARATUS IN EUROPE

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STEAM SUPERHEATING APPARATUS IN EUROPE.

INTRODUCTION.

In compliance with a request of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, the Department of State instructed the United States consular officers in various countries of Europe, by a circular dated February 5, 1904, to report upon the rules and regulations touching steam superheating apparatus in their districts. Several of the reports follow; others, including various printed documents, are on file in the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor. The scope of the circular is shown by the following interrogatories and instructions:

1. Are there now in force any restrictions or regulations regarding the installation or operation of steam superheating apparatus? If so, send copies, if procurable.
2. Are there now in force any restrictions or regulations regarding the installation or operation of steam superheating apparatus made wholly or in part of cast iron?
3. Do such restrictions or regulations, if existing, refer to steam superheating apparatus operated in connection with the gases from fuel burnt under boilers, or operated with their own furnaces?

The Department would be glad to receive copies of any official recommendations or reports of technical societies that may have been made on the subject.

AUSTRIA.

(From United States Consul Hossfeld, Trieste, Austria.)

There are practically no regulations in this country regarding the installation and operation of steam superheating apparatus. The subject has never received legislative attention, and the ministerial decrees and other administrative orders referring to steam apparatus are insufficient or obsolescent, and in some instances contradictory. The ministry of commerce, recognizing the inadequacy of the existing regulations, presented to Parliament about a year ago a bill for the regulation of all steam apparatus, excepting steam boilers, but no definite action has been taken upon the matter.

I am informed by the provincial inspector of steam apparatus in this city that according to his interpretation of the various ministerial

regulations at present in force all such parts of steam-heating apparatus as are not exposed to a direct flame may be made wholly or in part of cast iron. The inspector deems it advisable nevertheless for foreign manufacturers desirous of introducing new types of steam superheating apparatus into Austria to submit specifications thereof to the ministry of commerce at Vienna and to apply for formal permits of installation or operation.^a

It appears that no official recommendation or report has ever been made on this subject by any technical society in this consular district.

FREDERICK W. HOSSFELD, *Consul*.

TRIESTE, AUSTRIA, *May 17, 1904.*

GERMANY.

(From United States Vice and Deputy Consul-General Mason, Berlin, Germany.)

In accordance with paragraph 25 of the Reichsgewerbe Ordnung (the Imperial Industrial Code), the full text of which is transmitted with this report,^b a formal license must be obtained from the local authorities before a steam boiler can be installed or used in this country. Before being put into service the boiler must be tested by the official inspector, and must comply in all respects with the requirements of the building, fire, and sanitary police regulations, all of which are elaborate and exacting down to the minutest detail of construction and operation. Should a steam boiler be materially altered from its original form, size, or general type, such alteration must, under paragraph 75 of the code, be first authorized by special official permission. A superheating device, whether put into a new boiler or added after it has been some time in service, is subject to these requirements, and must be officially examined and approved before it can be used.

The following are the requirements as prescribed by paragraph 3 of the general police code of Prussia:

It must be possible to shut off at will the gases of combustion from the superheating device, even when it is located in one of the flues of the boiler. It must be possible to shut off the steam supply from the superheater. * * * When it is to be feared that condensed water may collect in a superheater thus closed and cut out of action, the evaporation of which may produce dangerous tension when the superheater is again brought into operation, the superheater must be provided with a steam safety valve and, at its lowest part, with a discharge valve for the escape of water. * * * All devices for controlling the working of the superheater must, so far as practicable, be within reach of the fireman. These precautions having been fulfilled, no objection is raised to the use of cast-iron superheaters in boiler rooms.

^a Consul Hossfeld forwarded a copy of the principal ministerial regulations regarding the safety of boilers and other steam vessels. It is on file in the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

^b Filed in the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

There are no special regulations or restrictions which apply specially and exclusively to superheaters made wholly or in part of cast iron. The foregoing regulations refer to the types of superheaters which are mainly used in Germany, viz, those heated by the gases of combustion from fuel consumed under boilers, but there is nothing in the text to show that the same regulations may not apply likewise to superheaters operated with their own furnaces.

DEAN B. MASON,

Vice and Deputy Consul-General.

BERLIN, GERMANY, *June 6, 1904.*

BAVARIA.

(From United States Consul Baldwin, Nuremberg, Germany.)

The superheating of steam is a comparatively new idea. I hear that it will undoubtedly have a great future. Wherever it has been introduced it has shown excellent results, not only in the saving of fuel but also in the saving of steam.

No restrictions or special regulations of any kind regarding steam superheating apparatus particularly are in force in Bavaria, the general regulations regarding steam boilers applying to steam superheaters.

There exists in Germany an association of German engineers. This association examines all new inventions with the greatest care. Generally one of its members is delegated to investigate any new invention, to study it carefully, both practically and theoretically, and to report on it. The member of the association who was deputed to examine steam superheating apparatus was Otto Berner, doctor of civil engineering in Berlin. In various treatises on this subject, which have just been completed and are now in print, he sets forth its uses in a most clear and concise manner. I have secured this work and inclose it herewith.^a It is the best work so far existing with regard to steam superheating apparatus.

GEORGE E. BALDWIN, *Consul.*

NUREMBERG, GERMANY, *May 6, 1904.*

SAXONY.

(From United States Consul Muench, Plauen, Germany.)

I have endeavored to procure information from local officials regarding requirements of steam superheating apparatus, but little encouragement has been offered from that quarter, as it seemed to be

^a Filed in the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

feared that any information granted might lead to the importation of "dangerous American cast-iron goods," and I was forced to resort to the published rules and laws on the subject. I have procured, and herewith transmit, a copy of Morgenstern on laws governing steam boilers in the Kingdom of Saxony, the latest publication on the subject, which includes all regulations down to the year 1902, and is the book of reference used by the officials charged with the execution of those regulations. I have prepared, and transmit herewith, literal translations of all those portions of this volume which seem relevant to the purpose of the inquiry.

It may be said in general that the regulations existing in this district upon the subject of inquiry are those for the whole kingdom of Saxony, and that sufficiently wide discretion is vested in the controlling authorities to prevent the installation and operation of any power plant which in the opinion of those authorities lacks elements for the attainment of that absolute safety which is ever the chief aim of German Government officials.

The authorities control very fully and in detail the erection, testing, and use of all steam boilers. The use of cast iron is prohibited in all boiler parts exposed to fire, and may be prevented altogether at the discretion of the authorities. The employment of superheated steam in cooking apparatus or receptacles which are only secondarily connected with steam generators is not prohibited, and permission for the general use of steam superheating apparatus may be either granted or denied by the authorities upon investigating each individual case. Plants for the production of power gases for use in gas engines and otherwise do not seem to be known here.

That no general rule or prejudice against the use of superheaters exists in this region may be gathered from the following advertisement which recently appeared in a local newspaper:

A competent and active person, well accredited among larger manufacturers, is wanted as a representative for the introduction of steam superheaters in the kingdom of Saxony by a strong and well-established special firm in this line.

HUGO MUENCH, *Consul*.

PLAUEN, GERMANY, *May 19, 1904*.

REGULATIONS GOVERNING SUPERHEATING STEAM APPARATUS IN SAXONY.

(*Translation by Consul Muench.*)

PERMITS FOR ERECTION.

Consent of the proper authorities of the particular State must be had for the erection of steam boilers, whether to be used for power purposes or not. The application must be accompanied by drawings and specifications sufficient to explain it.

The authorities must investigate the plant with regard to its conformity to existing ordinances covering safety in respect to structure, fire, and health, as well as with those general police regulations which have been promulgated by the national council (Bundesrath) concerning the establishment of steam boiler plants. These authorities, according to their findings, must either refuse the permission, unconditionally grant it, or else, in granting it, prescribe the necessary conditions.

Before such boiler may be used an examination must be made to determine whether it conforms to the conditions of the permission therefor. Anyone making use of such boiler prior to the receipt of a proper permit will be subject to penalty.

The foregoing provisions apply equally to movable steam boilers.

* * * * *

NOTE.—The industrial laws do not by the foregoing language make it clear under what circumstances an apparatus used for the production of steam is to be regarded as a "steam boiler." However, the proclamation of August 5, 1890, prohibits the application of its provisions to certain kinds of apparatus (steam cooking vessels, superheaters, and steam kettles), under particular conditions. The right to erect such steam apparatus is determined by the local building, fire, and police regulations. In general the above provisions apply to all steam boilers, even when not used for industrial but for other purposes.

Permission is not required for the erection of such boilers as are not classified as boilers in a legal sense. The erection of such is permitted as a matter of course, provided the general provisions as to health, building, and fire be observed. Before the same are operated the police authorities must, however, be notified.

* * * * *

The police authorities must immediately, or at least within three days, forward to the industrial inspectors any notifications received from steam boiler owners, users, or manufacturers which may call for an inspection, opinion, or test, and within a like period after receiving the report or records shall inform the petitioners unless further investigations justify a delay.

* * * * *

In all inspections and water tests the industrial inspectors shall in general observe the following:

The preparation of opinions concerning proposed erections or alterations, as well as contemplated water-pressure tests and inspections of completed new or altered plants, must be brought about with the greatest possible expedition and at least within a period of fourteen days, which in case of official opinions is to be reckoned from the day on which the required material is fully submitted; and the inspectors shall designate such alterations as they, in the interest of safety, deem necessary, together with the term within which they are to be made. They shall also notify the police authorities in advance of the dates upon which they propose to make water-pressure tests and inspections.

* * * * *

Notice of the intended erection of a stationary steam boiler must be given to the police authorities, and the following data furnished:

The object of the boiler, e. g. power, and the kind of engine and its purpose.

Whether the boiler was subjected to a water-pressure test at the place of origin.

What fuel it is proposed to heat it with. Besides this, there should be added:

1. A ground plan, showing the public roads and building lots surrounding the place of erection, with buildings, if any, designated on a sufficiently distinct scale, and which shall explain the boundaries and the purposes to which adjacent buildings are devoted.

2. A building sketch, with ground plan and cross section of the boiler house or other room in which the boiler is to be placed, from which both location and height of the smokestack, and the position of the boiler-house roof or ceiling of boiler room, as compared with the top of the boiler setting, should plainly appear.

3. A scale drawing of the boiler itself, from which the extent of the water surface, and the level of the lowest permissible stand of water above the fire flues shall be determinable, and which should likewise show all anchorings and stays.

4. A specification, in which the contents of the "factory tag," the measurements of the boiler, the strength and quality of the material, the method of construction, the size of the safety-valves, with their weights, the application of the water gauge, manometer, water feed, feed-water gauge, and furnace shall be fully detailed.

One copy of No. 1 and two copies each of Nos. 2, 3, and 4 are required.

Profile plans of the grounds are necessary only when demanded by the police authorities for purposes of general control; for instance, because of drains for waste water.

* * * * *

A fine of not exceeding 300 marks (\$71.40), and in case of nonpayment imprisonment will be imposed upon whoever erects an industrial plant without license when a special license is required in view of location and conditions surrounding the power plant or building, or who fails to observe the material conditions upon which such license was granted, or who, without permission, undertakes to make material changes in the location or conduct of the plant.

* * * * *

MATERIAL, CONSTRUCTION, AND INSTALLATION.

In the construction of steam boilers only good material must be employed.

The strength of the material is to be determined by the manufacturer. It is his duty to see that the shell of the boiler, water tubes, fire flues, fire box, smoke chamber, and the like, are so constructed that they will resist the expected steam pressure, having regard to possible anchorage and bracing.^a

Every steam boiler, when fully set up and before being walled in or jacketed, must be inspected by an expert officer of the industrial inspectors and tested with a view to its strength.

^aThe manufacturer is not restricted with reference to the strength of the shell of the boiler, water tubes, fire flues, etc. He determines the strength of the boiler shell, but is responsible for negligent error according to general legal principles. It must not be concluded, from the omission of former provisions regulating the strength of boiler shells, that the licensing officers are no longer entitled or required to determine in each case whether the boiler plates selected are to be deemed sufficient or not.

This test presupposes that the boiler is exposed on all sides and not painted.

* * * * *

Steam boilers designed for an additional pressure of 6 atmospheres, and those in which the product of the water surface in square meters and the atmospheric superpressure of steam exceeds 30, must be located in separate boiler rooms without superstructure. The outer walls which face public thoroughfares or private property and are distant therefrom less than 8 meters (26.24 feet) must be of a thickness of at least 40 centimeters (15.75 inches) and must contain no door or window openings.

Fire boxes under boilers must be so arranged as to produce combustion with the least possible smoke, so that neighboring owners may not experience damage or material annoyance through smoke, soot, etc.

The construction of fire flues so arranged that the heating gases strike portions of the boiler which are touched by steam from within ("overdraft boilers") must be such that superheating of these parts need not be feared, and also that the fire flues are of sufficient size to allow of cleaning them.

The shells of boilers wherever exposed to the fire, the fire flues, and the water tubes must not be constructed of cast iron whenever the interior diameter, in case of cylindrical boilers, exceeds 25 centimeters (9 $\frac{1}{4}$ inches), or in case of globular boilers, exceeds 30 centimeters (11 $\frac{1}{4}$ inches). The use of brass is permitted only for fire flues the interior diameter of which does not exceed 10 centimeters (3.9 inches).^a

INSPECTION OF STEAM BOILERS.

Every new boiler proposed to be erected must, before being walled in or jacketed, be tested by hydraulic pressure with all openings sealed—boilers designed to withstand a superpressure of not over 5 atmospheres, by the application of double the indicated pressure; all other steam boilers, by the application of a pressure which exceeds the indicated pressure by 5 atmospheric pressures. By an atmospheric pressure, a pressure of 1 kilogram (2.2046 pounds) to the square centimeter (0.155 square inch) is to be understood.

The shell of the boiler must be able to withstand the test without showing a lasting change of shape and without leaking. It is to be regarded as leaking when under the highest pressure water issues through the seams in other shape than as mist or small pearl-like drops.

The chief officials of the several States of the Empire are empowered in particular cases to waive compliance with the foregoing regulations.

The foregoing provisions do not apply to—

1. Cooking vessels in which the process of cooking goes on by means of steam derived from another steam generator.
2. Steam superheaters or receptacles in which steam derived from another boiler is additionally heated by the application of fire.
3. Cooking vessels in which steam is raised from water through direct firing, provided the same are connected with the atmosphere through an open standpipe of not over 5 meters (16.4 feet) in height

^a From the wording of the section it must be assumed that cast-iron portions of shells of boilers of other shapes than cylindrical or spherical must not be exposed to the fire.

and at least 8 centimeters in diameter, leading down into the water box, or through some other safety device approved by the chief officials of the State.

ACTION AGAINST DANGEROUS OR INJURIOUS ESTABLISHMENTS.

While existing laws permit of the institution of private actions in behalf of the owner or occupant of a parcel of ground against the owner or occupant of a neighboring parcel, for the redress of injuries arising from the use of such parcel, yet such action, when aimed at an industrial plant established by sanction of the authorities, can not prevail to the extent of prohibiting the entire use of such plant, but can merely bring about the introduction of such remedial measures as preclude the continuance of the deleterious effects, or, when the application of such remedies proves impracticable, or incompatible with the proper conduct of the business, can only be aimed at the award of compensatory damages.

* * * * *

In case of injury and danger to the general public, the further use of any industrial plant may be at any time prohibited by order of the higher authorities. But in that case the owner must be compensated for the damage shown to have been sustained by him.

The order of prohibition may be appealed from. Damages may also be sought by legal action.

* * * * *

BOILERS WITH SMALL WATER TUBES.

The department of the interior received a report from its technical commission as to whether and how a diminution of explosions of boilers with small water tubes, so frequently occurring in recent times, could be brought about, whereupon an opinion was formulated by the technical commission, of which an abstract is hereafter set forth.

The industrial inspectors are hereby directed to be guided by the rules laid down in this opinion, as well as by their other recommendations, when examining plans for the erection of new or the change of old steam plants, as also in their official conduct touching the inspection of steam-using establishments.

At the same time, the industrial inspectors are cautioned to specially observe those steam boilers with small water pipes upon which a heavy strain for production of steam is imposed, and to officially interfere in all cases where the strain is such as to threaten the security of the boiler in question.

OPINION OF THE TECHNICAL COMMISSION.

In cases of explosion of boilers with small water tubes, recently occurring, steam generators were usually involved in which a larger number of water tubes, more or less inclined, were so arranged that (a) they were interconnected, that is to say, in groups; (b) they were connected at both ends with water chambers; or, (c) they were con-

nected at the upper extremity only with water chambers, while the lower extremity was uncovered.

Explosions occurring in these boilers, which usually arose from the bursting of water tubes, are attributable to (1) defects in the construction of the boilers, especially the use of poor material, badly soldered water tubes, or defective adjustment or arrangement of such tubes; (2) unwise management, consisting mainly of allowing excessive strain upon the boiler, and defective circulation of water in the water tubes, the use of improper feed water, and insufficient cleaning of the scales and mud from the water tubes.

As a means of diminishing explosions which arise from the foregoing causes, the following measures are, in the opinion of the industrial commission, well adapted with reference to boilers named under subdivisions *a* and *b*, without thereby materially curtailing the usefulness of boilers with small water tubes.

1. The use of soldered water tubes must be stopped.

2. The length of any water tube should not exceed fifty times its interior diameter, nor should tubes over 5 meters (16.4 feet) in length be used at any time.

3. The water tubes should be so placed as to possess an incline of at least 12 degrees.

4. The sectional area of the connection leading from the lower extremity of the tubes to the steam cut-off (steam gatherer or upper boiler) should at least equal the sum of the sectional areas of all the tubes, while the sectional area of the connection between the upper extremity of such tubes and the steam cut-off should exceed the sum of the sectional areas of the tubes.

5. All water tubes should be supplied with sufficiently large openings at both ends for cleaning purposes; the axis of these openings should run as nearly parallel as possible with that of the tubes.

6. Water fed into boilers with small water tubes should be such as will not precipitate mud and scales. In case of necessity, the officials intrusted with supervision of steam boilers may demand that the tubes be removed and examined at intervals of not more than three years.

As to boilers classified under subdivision *c*, the following demands should be made:

7. Safeguards mentioned under subdivisions 1 to 6 should be applied. Besides this, the tubes at the exposed end should be so braced that they will not bend (sag) from their own weight and the weight of the water in them. Furthermore, precautions should be taken against their being blown out, in such a manner that their expansion longitudinally may not be obstructed.

ITALY.

(From United States Consul Bishop, Genoa, Italy.)

There are no legal restrictions or regulations here regarding the installation or operation of steam superheating apparatus, as far as concerns boilers for marine use. For steam superheating apparatus and steam boilers for plants established on land there is in force the restriction found in article 10 of the public safety law of December

23, 1888. The said article refers to the use of cast iron in such apparatus and boilers. Its opening paragraph reads thus:

Article 10. The use of cast iron and of sheet copper is prohibited for the portions exposed to the fire, exception being made of copper tubing of less than 10 centimeters (3.9 inches) in diameter.

On the other hand, a second paragraph of the article expressly authorizes the use of cast iron for certain parts technically specified therein. The following is a translation of this paragraph:

It is not permitted to use castings or brass plates for parts exposed to the fire, excepting tubes of brass of less than 10 centimeters (3.9 inches) in diameter, and for boilers of a special character, such as may be designated by the law. In this class are the multitubular inexplorable boilers of Belleville, Field, Babcock, Wilcox, Steinmueller, etc.

The use of cast metal is permitted for the steam dome, boiler heads, manhole lid, mud collectors, economizers, and similar apparatus, such as is not surrounded by the wall and is not touched by the fire, and whose diameter is not above 70 centimeters (27.6 inches).

I forward herewith two copies of the said regulations.^a They were promulgated by the ministry of the interior, under date of June 27, 1897, and in their present form are issued by the Association of Users of Steam Boilers at Genoa. Upon inquiry of this association and that of civil engineers and architects, as well as other competent authorities, I learn of no other laws or regulations on the subject.

WILLIAM HENRY BISHOP, *Consul*.

GENOA, ITALY, *April 6, 1904.*

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

NORWAY.

(*From Consul-General Bordewich, Christiania, Norway.*)

In Norway there are no permanent regulations regarding the installation or operation of steam-heating apparatus in buildings, and consequently no printed rules can be obtained.

The police authorities in the several cities and towns, as well as in the rural districts, have supervision over all such plants. Drawings and specifications of all intended installations of steam-heating apparatus must be submitted to them for approval before the work is begun. The steam pressure shall in no case exceed $7\frac{1}{2}$ pounds to the square inch, and all pipes and heat-conducting parts must be removed at least 2 inches from the woodwork.

Old plants are subject to inspection at short intervals.

HENRY BORDEWICH, *Consul-General*.

CHRISTIANIA, NORWAY, *April 19, 1904.*

^a Filed in Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

SWEDEN.

Under date of May 7, 1904, in answer to the circular, United States Consul-General Adams, of Stockholm, transmits the following copy of an official letter received by him from the Royal Board of Trade:

STOCKHOLM, May 4, 1904.

DEAR SIR: In reply to your letter of last month, concerning possible existing restrictions or regulations regarding steam superheating apparatus in Sweden, I beg to inform you that such restrictions or regulations neither exist nor are contemplated.

I am, sir, etc.,

JOHAN PIHLGREN,

Director of the Department of Industry.

(From United States Consul Bergh, Gothenburg, Sweden.)

On May 10, 1889, a law was enacted for the purpose of preventing injuries to persons working in factories or industrial establishments. This law gives a number of directions for the safety of the workmen, which directions are further defined and enforced by the factory inspectors specially appointed for this purpose. These inspectors are empowered to give such special directions as may be considered necessary and appropriate in each case, agreeably to the said law.

This law does not specially mention steam superheating apparatus, however, nor is there any other act prohibiting the use of such apparatus in Sweden, and I have seen such apparatus advertised for sale here.

The factory inspector at Gothenburg informs me that in sheet iron steam superheating apparatus no part should be made of cast iron, and that if the superheating apparatus is made wholly of cast iron it should be strong enough to withstand a pressure ten times as great as the highest allowable steam pressure.

A strict control over the condition of all high-pressure boilers is kept. When first to be used, after being moved and at certain intervals, the steam boilers are cleaned, inspected, tested, and, if they are approved, the highest steam pressure allowable in the boiler is fixed. The boiler must be made of good material and be strong enough to stand a pressure five times as great as the highest allowable steam pressure thus fixed, and this rule is evidently applied also to superheating apparatus made of sheet iron. But as the factory inspector demands tenfold strength in steam superheating apparatus made of cast iron, it appears that this is considered more dangerous than the apparatus made of sheet iron.

ROBERT S. S. BERGH, *Consul*.

Gothenburg, Sweden, April 27, 1904.

UNITED KINGDOM.

(From United States Consul-General Evans, London, England.)

The chief engineer of the London County Council reports in regard to this subject:

There is not among the council's machinery any steam boiler fitted with superheating apparatus. Boilers for use in factories, etc., are nearly all fitted to meet the views of the chief engineers of the various insurance corporations, but I am not aware that any of these bodies have published regulations dealing with the matter.

Your inquiry appears to be limited to apparatus used on land, but it may interest you to know that there are many steamships running which are fitted with some form of superheater, and are, I believe, classed by Lloyd's Register. Should you care to inquire I am sure the chief engineer of Lloyd's Registry would inform you as to whether he has drawn up any regulations dealing with such apparatus.

As regards the Government regulations, I believe there are none, because permission to fit superheaters on vessels having passenger certificates has so far been withheld.

The chief engineer of the Boiler Insurance Company, of Manchester, remarks:

There are no restrictions or regulations in connection with superheaters in this country, except in so far as they may be considered a portion of a boiler, in which case they would probably come under the operations of section 2 of the factory and workshop act,^a which requires that every steam generating boiler in a factory or workshop shall be thoroughly examined once annually by some competent person.

In cases where the superheaters are operated with their own furnaces, we should say they would not come under the provisions of the factory act at all.

Cast iron is not generally considered a suitable material for superheaters.

Mr. Stromeyer, chief engineer of the Manchester Steam Users' Association, states:

The only laws in Great Britain and Ireland relating to the safety of boilers, etc., are the boiler explosions acts, 1882-1890, and the factory and workshops act, 1901, section 2.

Under the boiler explosions acts steam pipes and, therefore of course, also superheaters, are defined as being steam boilers, but they are not boilers under the factory act.

We have had several cases of copper pipe bursting, and now, although we do not issue printed rules, we are guided by the following principles with regard to superheaters and steam pipes:

1. No cast iron or copper to be used in the construction of superheaters. They should be of mild steel. It is true that there are many superheaters in use with cast-iron covers, and these are giving no trouble, but we prefer not to sanction this material in new installations.

^aOn file in the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

II. No copper pipes, either solid, drawn, or brazed, to be used for the conveyance of superheated steam.

III. For pressures of 130 pounds and upward mild cast steel to be used for stop valves, etc., and wrought iron or mild steel for pipes. The expression "cast steel" or "steel alloy" is misleading; substances sold under these names are generally worse than cast iron. Mild steel or mild cast steel should be used.

Superheaters are generally so constructed as to allow of their being flooded with water. As a consequence, there is danger of water-hammer action, as will be seen from one of my reports. I send you, therefore, the inclosed two papers on the subject.

The sudden cooling of red-hot plates is also a danger which may occur in superheaters.

Lloyd's Registry, London, referred to by the chief engineer of the London County Council, and to whom an inquiry was accordingly made, replied:

As the use of superheaters for marine purposes is extremely rare, the committee have not found it necessary to incorporate regulations for their construction in the rules of this society. It is the practice of the committee, in the rare instances in which superheaters are used, to consider each case separately and to deal with it on its merits.

The superheaters which have been used have been mainly composed of wrought iron or steel tubes, connected at their ends with cast-iron headers, the cast iron not being exposed to the same heat as the tubes. In most cases they have been operated upon by the furnace gases after these have passed through the combustion chamber and ordinary tubes of steel boilers, but in some cases they have been heated by a part of the furnace gases of the ordinary boilers, abstracted from the combustion chamber before passing through the ordinary chamber tubes. In no case has the superheater been used with an independent fire.

In cases in which the superheater can be wholly shut off from the steam space of the main boilers the committee require that it shall be fitted with a safety valve.

When a type of superheater has been proposed in which it has been considered that undue superheat may be given to the steam, the committee have required, as a condition of its approval, that the superheater, and also the steam cylinders, pistons, slides, etc., shall be submitted to survey by the society's officers more frequently than is ordinarily required by the rules. The extra frequency of surveys is continued until experience shows that no ill effects result.

H. CLAY EVANS, *Consul-General*.

LONDON, ENGLAND, *April 21, 1904.*

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TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN LONDON.

(From United States Commercial Agent Harris, Eibenstock, Germany.)

The London Daily Telegraph of October 14, 1904, contains the following article in regard to technical education in London:

Now that primary and secondary education in London are brought by the new act under the control of one authority, the Technical Education Board of the London County Council has ceased to exist. The last report, just issued, is eloquent of the work which has been done in the past decade, and the opportunity is naturally seized to indicate the actual progress made. It is a story of which the members and the officials have reason to be proud.

The most striking features of the record are the increase and rapid development of polytechnic institutions, the establishment and success of London County Council schools and technical institutes, and the improvement in the equipment and appointment of teachers of secondary schools. A great advance has taken place in the volume and character of evening instruction in science and technology. Whereas nine years ago instruction in trade subjects was given in only 113 centers, now the classes embrace 64 different occupations and the work of instruction is carried on in 313 places. The number of distinct trades in which practical instruction is provided, and also the number of centers providing such courses of instruction, have more than doubled during the past nine years and the number of apprentices and young workmen attending them has increased fourfold. Even these striking figures do not accurately represent the progress effected. For example, in carriage building there were two centers in 1903 as against three in 1894, but in 1894 the instruction consisted entirely of lectures and demonstrations, there being no systematic courses of practical work. The establishment of the London County Council School of Carriage Building has naturally attracted students from all parts of London, and so has reduced the number of centers. Similarly, there is only one center in tanning as against two in 1894, but in 1894 the instruction was entirely theoretical. The establishment of Harold's Institute, a properly equipped tanning and dyeing school, has removed the necessity of instruction in other centers. There has also been a natural tendency during the past few years for sporadic classes in trade subjects to disappear in consequence of the increasing popularity of the polytechnics and larger technical institutes, in which are found thoroughly equipped laboratories and workshops.

As to the polytechnics, the board give a list of twenty-six of these institutions now in full work. It is pointed out that the rapid growth of polytechnics in different parts of London since the formation of the technical education board in 1893 has had a great effect in the development of evening instruction, and, moreover, that this success has

not been achieved at the expense of other institutions; it represents a new growth, not the transfer from old to new institutions. Many changes have taken place in the older polytechnics to bring them more into touch with modern requirements, and this has been accompanied in nearly every case by an increase in the volume of instruction. An interesting table is given of the instruction in mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, carpentry and joinery, plumbing, other building-trade classes (including brickwork and masonry), experimental physics, chemistry (organic and inorganic), and mathematics. It shows an increase from 118,732 student hours in the first year of the board's operation to 454,363 student hours for the session 1900-1901. Since then the number of artisan students has been steadily increasing, and the inspectors' reports indicate that a far greater number of artisans are pursuing systematic courses, entailing attendance on several evenings of the week.

In addition to the polytechnics and schools of the university there are smaller institutions in various parts of London, some of which simply give instruction in specific trades, while others give instruction in general scientific and technical subjects. The county council has supplemented former facilities by special schools and institutes for highly advanced subjects, such as the Central School of Arts and Crafts, the London Day Training College, and the School of Photo-engraving, while several districts have been supplied with schools and technical institutes.

An important innovation was the establishment of London County council scholarships, so graded as to form a ladder from the elementary schools upward, in many cases to a university. Particulars are given of the occupations of the parents of the 614 boys and girls to whom junior county scholarships were awarded in 1903. The majority of the scholarships have fallen to the children of workers in trades (mostly journeymen) and unskilled laborers, who have gained 375 out of the 614 scholarships, or 61 per cent. Children of officials and servants obtained 15.5 per cent, shopkeepers and assistants 2.79 per cent, and clerical and subordinate professions 16.4 per cent. In addition, intermediate and senior scholarships are awarded. The junior scholarships have formed a link between the public elementary and secondary schools, and the "intermediate" scholarships, numbering about 100 annually, the board claim, have carried out and deepened the connection which the junior scholarships have already established between elementary and secondary education, but they have also formed a link between secondary schools and the universities. Providing free education till after the age of 18, these scholarships enable pupils to remain at school long enough to compete for university distinctions.

Several of the endowed grammar schools of London are therefore now able to keep their most promising pupils long enough for them to enter for open scholarships at Oxford or Cambridge, and the council's intermediate scholars have already won credit for their schools by distinguishing themselves at these competitions. In addition to the intermediate scholars who proceed to the older universities after the expiration of their scholarships, there are every year several who enter institutions of university rank in London for the last two years' tenure of their scholarships. The final stage in the council's scholarship scheme is marked by the senior county scholarships, which provide a

maintenance grant of \$300 a year for three years, and carry with them in addition payment of tuition fees up to but not exceeding \$150 a year. Five of these scholarships are offered for competition each year, the award being made by selection and based on the past work and future promise of the candidates. In addition to these full senior scholarships, the steady growth in the number of scholars coming up from the elementary schools has compelled the board to provide for their continued education by exhibitions and free places, of which about forty are now given annually. Last year out of 28 candidates who gained senior scholarships and exhibitions (apart from free places), 21 were holding intermediate county scholarships, and 14 out of the 21 had previously held junior county scholarships.

ERNEST L. HARRIS, *Commercial Agent.*

EIBENSTOCK, GERMANY, *October 19, 1904.*

AUSTRALIAN WHEAT AND FLOUR EXPORTS.

(From United States Consul-General Bray, Melbourne, Australia.)

Since the opening of the present season, at the beginning of December, the exports of Australian wheat and flour have reached the total of about 29,905,225 bushels of wheat and 815,579 sacks of flour. Reducing the flour to the equivalent in wheat, the totals together are equal to 33,820,004 bushels of wheat. The value of the exports is estimated approximately at \$25,719,452.

The following statement shows the exports from each State from December 1, 1903, to September 30, 1904:

Exports of Australian wheat and flour from December 1, 1903, to September 30, 1904.

State.	Wheat.	Flour.	Total equivalent in wheat.
	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Sacks.</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>
Victoria	15,038,106	310,666	16,529,308
South Australia	6,440,249	263,805	7,706,513
New South Wales	8,323,238	239,163	9,471,220
Queensland	98,976	1,945	108,312
Western Australia	9,656		9,656
Total	29,905,225	815,579	33,820,004

Of the total amount (33,820,004 bushels), 27,030,586 bushels were shipped to Europe, 5,125,183 bushels to South Africa, 437,500 bushels to South America, and the remainder, 1,226,735 bushels, to various other destinations.

JOHN P. BRAY, *Consul-General.*

MELBOURNE, AUSTRALIA, *October 3, 1904.*

LEATHER IN DRESS.

The following article from the London Telegraph of November 2, 1904, will give an idea of the extent to which leather, in its finer grades, is coming into use for dress trimming and ornamentation:

In the shoe and leather fair now occupying the Royal Agricultural Hall observant visitors have noticed the prominent position assigned to leathers in the most beautiful colors by a few of the exhibitors of the highest grades of skins. Are such, it was asked on many hands, indicative of gayer taste in footwear, or will luxurious bookbinding, fancy bags, or upholstery claim them for their most artistic embodiments? The real reason of their presence is that the finer kinds of leather are likely ere long to play a very important part in fashionable dress, and that it is well to show that our leading English houses are prepared to meet it. For the last two or three years these exhibitions have been increasingly visited by the more exclusive ladies' tailors and modistes from the West End, with a view to noting how and where they might obtain leather suitable for use in shooting or sporting costumes of any kind, as in linings or facings, and the present season has witnessed a marked increase in their demands. That such requirements are not a passing fad it is significant that the great wholesale manufacturing houses are ordering them extensively for the dresses of spring.

To understand how it has come about that leather should now be making such effective appeal with regard to dress trimming, the explanation of a leading expert threw full light upon the subject. The dominant leather for boots and shoes fulfilling the present demands for lightness, flexibility, and ease in wear is real kid skin taken from the young goat, and so extensively is it employed that calf kid is not used in anything like the proportion that it formerly was. Such request for kid as there is at this moment has never been known before, and the remotest villages of Europe, India, South America, and wherever goats are kept, are visited by itinerant collectors to obtain them. The skins are sun dried, made up into bales, shipped to America or this country, and go through the usual processes of being soaked, put into lime for unhairing, and finally tanned. Kid, as it was found when submitted to chrome treatment for waterproofing or for glazing, gave such satisfactory results that further experiments in coloring and dyeing were instituted, and it is in these last stages that such remarkable advances have been made during the past two years or so.

A special surface known technically as "matt finish" is given to the kid, which is finding chief favor with the dressmakers. It is not so smooth or bright as that of ordinary glacé kid, and may be said to resemble a dull satin, with a peach-like bloom upon it. The colors include some of the softest pastel shades, as well as the stronger and brighter tones, and the reds, mauves, and champagnes are particularly good. From the wholesale manufacturers, as well as from the ladies' tailors, the shades most called for are subdued myrtle green, navy blue, prune, golden, chocolate, and hazel browns, and silver gray, which is shown in some very delicate gradations, while white is greatly favored. It is used as vests with very smart gowns, and appears on

coats and skirts in revers, waistbands, strappings, pipings, and buttons. For motor wear whole blouses are made of it. In the darker shades very workmanlike skirts are turned out, and underskirts have been made in it for ladies who are anticipating shooting over rough country. It is even appearing upon millinery, and felt hats for country or morning wear are being trimmed with folded bands of it fastened by quills or wings. Possibly here the soft, velvet-like suède finish may ultimately win chief acceptance. But there would seem to be no limits to its possible uses as an accessory of dress, as it is pointed out that motifs and appliqués of quite original effects could easily be obtained from it, while it lends itself well as the ground for silk embroidery and jeweled work. It is evident that the leather merchants have a firm belief in it as a coming feature in fashion, which is manifested at Islington by the attention bestowed upon it in tasteful and attractive displays and the wide range of colors which they are prepared to supply.

The direction fashion is taking in this matter in England should give a hint to American manufacturers and merchants. They should be quick to follow this lead. In the manufacture of shoes and some other kinds of leather goods America has taken the undisputed lead in the markets of the world. It ought to be able to excel in the production of the finer as well as in the coarser grades of leather.

WALTER C. HAMM, *Consul*.

HULL, ENGLAND, *November 4, 1904.*

AMERICAN TRADE IN COAHUILA, MEXICO.

(*From United States Vice-Consul Bonnet, Ciudad Porfirio Diaz, Mexico.*)

The balance of trade between this consular district and the United States is largely in favor of the latter, the exports thereto being limited to a few articles, chiefly istle, the fiber of the lechugia, which abounds in this district and is used for making ropes, sacks, etc. Hides and goatskins are also largely exported to the United States, and, recently, pecans, wheat, and bran.

There are two cotton factories in this district equipped with the most modern machinery. Although the products are entirely consumed in the home market they interfere somewhat with the imports of American cottons.

The coal measures of this district (Coahuila) are being extensively developed. They are the only extensive coal mines in Mexico. The minimum daily output is 3,000 tons of coal and 1,500 tons of coke.

The license tax on commercial travelers varies from time to time, and differs in each municipality, ranging from \$3.75 to \$50, according to the size of the town and the time for which the license is taken out.

American methods of packing goods are satisfactory, but when destined for the mountain district, away from the railroads, packages

should not weigh more than from 150 to 300 pounds, the latter being a pack-mule load.

Mexico is making big strides in the manufacture of goods for home consumption, such as shoes, cotton and woolen goods, and dynamite. None of these are exported, as they bring better prices at home and are inferior to the goods manufactured in the United States. Nearly all the better class of Mexicans wear American shoes and clothing.

The imports into the district, beyond the Free Zone, from the United States, are chiefly lumber, agricultural and mining machinery, railroad materials, and coal from the mines at Eagle Pass, Tex.

American houses should send experienced men into Mexico to look the situation over and learn what kind and style of goods are wanted. These men should speak Spanish, and familiarize themselves with the needs of the country, as, although the better class of Mexicans are adopting the American styles, there are still some very nice distinctions in dress that must be seen to be understood.

Another important thing is that in the American counting house at home there should be one man who can correspond with Mexican customers in their own language, as the Mexican merchant does not as a general rule speak or care to speak English.

JOHN A. BONNET, *Vice-Consul.*

CIUDAD PORFIRIO DIAZ, MEXICO, *October 20, 1904.*

MINERAL DISCOVERIES IN CANADA.

(From United States Consul Burke, St. Thomas, Ontario:)

RICH CORUNDUM FIND.

A rich deposit of corundum has been found on the farm of J. T. Vosper, Methuan Township, county of Peterboro. A sample of the deposit was assayed by Professor Wilmot, director of the government geological survey, and pronounced very rich. Its specific gravity is 3.99, while that of good corundum is 3.85. The value of the metal is placed at \$390 per ton. The feldspar in which the corundum is found is also very valuable.

GOLD IN ESSEX COUNTY.

A report comes from Maidstone, Essex County, Ontario, that while boring for oil or gas on his farm, Patrick Major brought up some yellow metal which he believes to be gold. Referring to the find, Director Gibson, of the bureau of mines, said several reports had been made of the existence of gold in the sand and gravel of that district. Reports had also occasionally been received of gold in the sands on the north shore of Lake Erie, opposite Kent County. In no

case have these reports been such as to warrant investigation by the department, and he did not believe that gold existed in commercial quantities.

M. J. BURKE, *Consul*.

ST. THOMAS, ONTARIO, CANADA, *October 31, 1904.*

LIBERIAN COFFEE.

(From United States Chargé d'Affaires Ellis, Monrovia, Liberia.)

The following table, prepared from the statistical report of Minister Johnson, shows the exports of coffee from Liberia in the December quarter, 1903:

Quantity and value of coffee exported from Liberia in the quarter ended December 31, 1903.

Ports.	Quantity.			Value.		
	England.	Germany.	Total.	England.	Germany.	Total.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>			
Monrovia.....	7,917	258,031	265,948	\$399	\$13,473	\$13,872
Grand Bassa.....	2,948	7,594	10,542	336	398	729
Sinoe.....	1,120	2,840	3,960	89	107	196
Maryland.....		900	900		45	45
Cape Mount.....	2,170	1,560	3,730	180	94	224
Marshall.....		1,871	1,871		91	91
Total.....	14,155	272,796	286,951	954	14,208	15,157

During the quarter neither the United States nor any other country, save England and Germany, imported any Liberian coffee direct. This is strange, because of the splendid quality and strength of the Liberian coffee; and yet it is not strange, because of the excellent transportation facilities between Liberia and the two countries mentioned. Liberian coffee is considered by experts to be one of the best qualities of coffee. It is used in the great coffee markets to strengthen and give flavor to the weaker kinds. But for the Liberian coffee contained therein many of the popular brands would be without that delicious flavor which commands for them such wide markets.

A few years ago when the *Lemileia vastatrix* wrought such havoc among the coffee trees of Ceylon, India, Java, and Brazil, Liberian plants, because of their ability to resist the attacks of the pest, were used to replace the old trees.

Until about 1896 Liberian coffee commanded from 18 to 22 cents per pound in the markets of the world, and large and flourishing coffee farms sprang up. But following the simultaneous large-scale production of coffee in Ceylon, India, Java, Brazil, and other places in West Africa, under the latest improved methods of cultivation, and with the best machinery for hulling and the final grading, there came a disastrous decline in the price. It commands now from 5 to 8 cents per pound.

Large coffee farms are often abandoned to woods. Yet, possibly, the price of Liberian coffee would rise if the coffee farms were placed under scientific cultivation; if, through washing, or other processes, the beans were made to lose a certain bitterness, objectionable to some; if the coffee were presented to market in better condition by grading; and if there were substituted the best and most improved hulling machinery for the crude pestle and mortar which break many beans. As it is, with better and more general advertising in the United States, the real and distinctive merits of the Liberian coffee would lead many Americans to avail themselves of one of the finest and best coffees of the world.

GEORGE W. ELLIS, Jr., *Chargé d'Affaires*.

MONROVIA, LIBERIA, *September 29, 1904.*

WORLD'S PRODUCTION OF IRON IN 1903.

(From *United States Consul Bartleman, Seville, Spain.*)

Messrs. James Watson & Co., Glasgow, have just published statistics on the production of raw iron during 1903, from which the following figures have been extracted:

The production, which in 1901 was 39,940,000 tons, increased to 43,480,000 tons in 1902 and reached 45,480,000 tons in 1903. The United States stands at the head with a production of 18,010,000 tons against 17,820,000 in 1902 and 15,800,000 in 1901. Germany wrested the second place from Great Britain in 1903, its production being 10,090,000 tons against 8,400,000 in 1902 and 7,790,000 in 1901. Great Britain occupies the third place with an output of 8,810,000 tons against 8,520,000 in 1902 and 7,850,000 in 1901. The output in France, which in 1903 amounted to 2,830,000 tons, has increased by 400,421 tons as compared with 1902 and by 427,428 tons as compared with the production of 1901. Belgium produced 1,300,000 tons in 1903, an increase of 196,301 tons over 1902 and 533,701 tons over 1901. Spain's production amounted to 380,284 tons.

The output has decreased in the following countries: Russia, 2,400,000 tons, or 118,404 tons less than in 1902 and 382,065 tons less than in 1901; Austria-Hungary, 1,320,000 tons, or 108,814 tons and 82,165 tons less than in 1902 and 1901, respectively; Sweden, 489,700 tons, a decrease of 34,300 and 23,600 tons from the amounts produced in 1902 and 1901, respectively.

R. M. BARTLEMAN, *Consul*.

SEVILLE, SPAIN, *October 21, 1904.*

D C R NO. 2124—2

PROTECTION FOR MEXICAN PRODUCERS.

(From United States Consul LeRoy, Durango, Mexico.)

The Government of Mexico, by customs imposts or by consumption taxes, and sometimes by both, within the past year has extended quite heavy protection (freight rates also being taken into consideration) to the new steel works at Monterey, and has given a virtual monopoly to the large new dynamite and explosives factory in the State of Durango. It had previously extended protection to the fruit-canning industry at Guadalajara, the cotton factories throughout the Republic, and the soap factories in the principal cotton-growing district. The following is from the October 27 issue of the Mexican Herald, a newspaper whose information is often semiofficial:

It is rumored the Government is considering aiding the sugar manufacturers and planters of Mexico by giving them practically a monopoly of the alcohol market in the Republic. It is proposed, it is asserted, to accomplish this by increasing the present tax on alcohol made from corn and products other than molasses, the increase being great enough, it is said, to be prohibitive of manufacture.

The benefit that will result to the sugar manufacturers from such a move on the part of the Government will be immense. It means higher prices of alcohol, and sugar mills equipped with modern outfits can afford to purchase cane from the small planters at prices that will prevent the manufacture of crude sugar or piloncillo.

The increased value of alcohol as a by-product will allow refined sugar to be placed on the market at a much lower price than under present conditions.

JAMES A. LEROY, *Consul.*

DURANGO, MEXICO, *October 31, 1904.*

IMPERIAL LIBRARY OF JAPAN.

(From United States Consul Halstead, Birmingham, England.)

An interesting and significant paragraph in the Birmingham Daily Post is based on information from Tokio regarding the kinds of literature most in demand in the Imperial Library of Japan. While 12,486 works relating to theology and religion, or only 1.6 per cent of the total number of books in the library, were asked for according to the records of the past year, there were demanded by readers 166,677 volumes, or 21.6 per cent, classified under the head of mathematics, science, and medicine. Works on literature and language to the number of 153,711—that is, 20 per cent, were asked for, while 18 per cent of the applications were for books on history and geography. Fiction, the writer says, finds no place in the classified table of books in demand by readers in this Japanese library, “a curious contrast to the experience in most English public free libraries” and to the experience of

American libraries. Works on art, industries, engineering, military, and naval science figure prominently on the list of additions made in recent years to the shelves of the Imperial Library.

MARSHAL HALSTEAD, *Consul*.

BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND, *October 24, 1904.*

CORNISH CHINA STONE COMBINE.

(*From United States Consul Stephens, Plymouth, England.*)

The producers of china stone in Cornwall have associated together with the object of increasing the price of their product, the agreement taking effect on January 1, 1905. The annual output of china stone is about 50,000 tons, a large portion of which is utilized in the Staffordshire potteries, while considerable quantities are exported to the Continent and the United States. The agreement will benefit the firms directly interested in the production of stone, and, of course, raise the cost of the class of pottery for which the stone is utilized. It is stated that the output will not be increased.

One great object of the combine is not only the controlling of prices, but the control of terms and dates of payment. While prices in the past have been cut very low, extended credits have had to be given, and producers have been very much in the hands of buyers. Credit extending over eighteen months has not been uncommon. Under the new arrangement only three months' credit will be given.

It is not intended to make prices prohibitive or unreasonably high. The rise will depend somewhat on the quality of the stone, but, on the whole, will probably advance to the American purchaser about 60 cents a ton over present prices.

JOSEPH G. STEPHENS, *Consul*.

PLYMOUTH, ENGLAND, *October 18, 1904.*

NOTES.

Belgian Cement Trade.—The Belgian cement trade has to deplore the almost total loss of the American market. The United States was formerly one of the best customers of Belgian manufacturers, but within the last two or three years has practically emancipated itself from European manufacturers, and produces a surplus which it is expected will be offered on European markets. This has caused a serious depression here, where prices reached in 1903 their very lowest limit. Many factories have been transformed both as to machinery and methods in order to meet the depression.—*Stanislas H. Haine, Vice-Consul, Antwerp, Belgium, October 13, 1904.*

American Factories in Germany.—In his annual report Vice-Consul-General George H. Murphy, at Frankfort, Germany, calls attention to a commercial movement which may exert a far-reaching influence on export trade. To avoid payment of duties, many German manufacturers have in recent years found it profitable to establish branch factories in the United States. For the same reason, and also to protect their patent rights in Germany, several American firms have recently established factories in the vicinity of Frankfort. American shoe machinery is now manufactured here and two companies are preparing to make shoe polish. Americans are also employed in several leather factories for the purpose of instructing German workmen in the art of producing soft shoe leather of a fine sort. The success of enterprises of this kind will naturally tend to reduce the importation of American shoes into Germany.

Mining in Lower California.—The mining resources here, which have always been looked upon with a great deal of hope, are being gradually prospected for at different points, and an occasional find of a rich streak has been sufficient to supply matter for sensational articles for some newspapers. At times it would seem that these articles have been published intentionally in order to create a rush to this district. There are, however, without doubt a good many ledges of gold, silver, and copper in this district, which, owing to the difficulties and lack of frequent communication, have never been developed and still await the coming of civilization and enterprise. In this line there exists a number of prospects which would warrant investigation.—*James Viosca, Vice-Consul, La Paz, Lower California, Mexico, September 27, 1904.*

Automobiles in Quebec.—A letter has been received from an American interested in automobiles who wishes to know the prospect of making sales of American automobiles and motor boats in this place. I have seen, as yet, only four automobiles in this city of 70,000 inhabitants. There must be a market for a great many more. If the motor for boats is any improvement on the present gasoline motors, I am sure there must be an opening for the sale of a great many of them among the large number of fishermen who have fishing rights on the numerous lakes and rivers in this vicinity. If some manufacturer would come here and attach his motor on a boat and demonstrate that it is better than any other, I am sure he would be able to make good sales.—*William W. Henry, Consul, Quebec, Canada, November 10, 1904.*

Remarkable Potato Yields in England.—Potato digging in Lincolnshire is giving some remarkable results. From five rows, $7\frac{1}{2}$ yards in length, 335 pounds of Northern Stars were lifted. In two other cases, a single root of Northern Stars yielded 123 potatoes, and 7 pounds planted produced 720 pounds. A pound of Johnson's Diamond yielded 208 pounds, and a field of Evergoods averaged $28\frac{1}{4}$ long tons per acre. Some roots grown from shoots of the famous Eldorado, a potato which last winter brought the enormous price of £450 (\$2,186) for a single pound of seed, have yielded from 10 to 13 pounds per root. It should be added that weather conditions in 1904, although infinitely better than last year, were not altogether favorable, the drought in the summer seriously retarding the growth of potatoes.

In this county (Nottingham) a "gentleman" farmer near this city has just dug 250 pounds from a planting of 1 pound of Northern Stars. He believes the yield would have been over 300 pounds had the potatoes been given more space and had they not been planted, as they were, among dahlias, wintergreens, and rows of beans.—*Frank W. Mahin, Consul, Nottingham, England, October 14, 1904*

Cotton Industry in Mexico.—The following figures published by the Mexican Herald, of October 9, 1904, and evidently extracted from the Government's most recent statistics, show the status of cotton manufacturing in Mexico for the year 1903: Factories for the spinning and weaving of cotton, 113; for the weaving and stamping of cotton, 10; solely for the stamping of cotton, 9; total cotton manufacturing plants in Mexico, 132. The year's consumption of cotton in Mexico was 30,263.22 tons. The number of pieces of cotton manufactured during the year was 11,606,105; length of cotton stuffs, in yards, 348,183,050; spindles in operation, 632,601; looms, 20,271; stamping machines, 35. These machines were valued at \$4,007,500, United States currency. There were 26,149 persons employed in cotton factories, the sales of the products of which during the year amounted to \$12,323,442.18, United States currency.—*James A. Le Roy, Consul, Durango, Mexico, October 12, 1904.*

Yarmouth Herring Catch.—Last week the biggest herring catch of the season was reported from Great Yarmouth, where a steam drift landed no less than 20 lasts (a last=12 barrels) of 126,400 fish, while another brought in 16 lasts. There is, it is stated, a decrease this season to date of 1,300 lasts, or over 39,000,000 herrings less than last year. Sailing from the two ports of Lowestoft and Yarmouth the herring fleet numbers about 1,000 vessels, each of which spreads a net a mile to a mile and a half long.—*Marshal Halstead, Consul, Birmingham, England, October 26, 1904.*

Municipal Ownership in Ontario.—The city of St. Thomas owns and operates the 6 miles of electric street railway within its corporate limits. The road gives general satisfaction as to service, but at the expense of a deficit ranging between \$3,000 and \$4,000 per annum. The city owns and operates the waterworks system very successfully. This plant nets a small annual surplus and at the same time gives entire satisfaction. The city is now about to take over the plant of the Gas and Electric Company, and a board of arbitration is at present engaged in settling a difference of valuation between the city and the private corporation owning the property.—*M. J. Burke, Consul, St. Thomas, Ontario, Canada, October 31, 1904.*

Artificial Silk.—It is reported that a company has been formed in Lyon, France, with a capital of \$300,000 for the manufacture of artificial silk (mercerized cotton). It is also proposed to open another factory, employing 400 operatives, in northern France. A similar factory, with a capital of \$500,000, has been organized in Brussels, Belgium. Much of the artificial silk produced in German and French factories is shipped to the United States to be used there in the manufacture of textiles of various sorts. As the profits of this comparatively new industry appear to be large, the attention of American manufacturers is invited to the matter.—*George H. Murphy, Vice and Deputy Consul-General, Frankfort, Germany, October 24, 1904.*

German Porcelain Syndicate.—The decorated porcelain and china-ware manufactured in Silesia constitute as usual the largest export from this consular district to the United States, which is still the main market for these products. The union of German porcelain manufacturers, Die Vereinigung Deutscher Porzellanfabriken, agreed to a further continuation of their association until 1910, and an unsuccessful effort was made to induce the independent manufacturers to join the union. One of the articles of agreement made by this body is to pay to its members a 10 per cent bounty on all wares exported by them.—*Ernest A. Man, Consul, Breslau, Germany, October 25, 1904.*

Bath House at Carlsbad.—The municipality of Carlsbad has just resolved to build a new bath house at a cost of \$300,000. There may be a chance for American firms in the sanitary, china, and fixture trade, and catalogues giving details of manufactures and prices should be forwarded to the Stadtrath of Carlsbad.—*John S. Twells, United States Commercial Agent, Carlsbad, Austria, October 27, 1904.*

Tourists and Visitors in Geneva, Switzerland.—The following statistics showing the number of visitors registered at hotels and boarding houses in Geneva during the first fifteen days of this month (October, 1904) are of interest as indicating an increase of nearly 2,000 over the number in the corresponding period last year, and specifying the varied nationalities represented:

French, 3,776; Swiss, 3,231; Germans, 1,733; Italians, 506; British, 411; Russians, 312; Austro-Hungarians, 211; Americans, 208; Africans, 15; Asians, 5; Australasians, 5; Belgians, 41; Scandinavians (Danes, Swedes, etc.), 32; Spaniards and Portuguese, 83; Dutch, 40; Turks and Danubians, 43; other countries, 8.

The total is 10,560, against 8,728 persons for the corresponding period in 1903.—*Horace Lee Washington, Consul, Geneva, Switzerland, October 20, 1904.*

Tobacco Culture in Ireland.—Prof. J. N. Harper, of the University of Kentucky, is, according to a paragraph which is on its rounds in English newspapers, a tobacco expert, and has been advising Colonel Everard, who has been experimenting at Randlestown, County Meath, Ireland, in growing tobacco. It is claimed the moisture of the Irish climate is good for tobacco culture, and that there is plenty of the right kind of soil in the Emerald Isle; and Professor Harper is credited with declaring that Colonel Everard's crop "is as good as any that Kentucky or Virginia can show." In the neighborhood of the Cotswolds there is, I have heard, a tradition that shortly after Sir Walter Raleigh introduced tobacco into this country the plant was grown successfully here, but in compliance with a request from the colony of Virginia the growing of tobacco in Great Britain was prohibited.—*Marshal Halstead, Consul, Birmingham, England, October 27, 1904.*

Gas-motor Combine in Germany.—According to the Cologne Gazette a fusion of three large machine works in western Germany is planned in order to regulate the manufacture and price of gas-motor machines. Combinations of manufacturing companies are now frequent in Germany, the object being to obviate the effects of competition and to economize.—*George H. Murphy, Vice and Deputy Consul-General, Frankfort, Germany, October 24, 1904.*

Freight Rate on Copra.—Adverting to my report of August 10, in which I stated that the freight for copra from Pago Pago to San Francisco was \$11 per ton, I have the honor to announce that the freight for copra from and to said port has been reduced to \$5 per ton.—*George Heimrod, Consul-General, Apia, Samoa, October 14, 1904.*

Roumanian-German Commercial Treaty.—A commercial treaty between Roumania and Germany was signed on October 8. The terms of the convention are not to be made public at present, but it is known that Roumania, like Russia, was obliged to accept the "minimum" duties on agricultural products under the German tariff of 1902, unless, as the Roumanian papers state, Roumania was prepared to abandon the German market wholly to the United States and Russia. In return Roumania claims to have gained concessions which will greatly benefit its "national industries," or, in other words, its petroleum. Negotiations for a commercial treaty between Roumania and Italy will be begun shortly at Bukharest.—*Charles S. Wilson, Secretary of Legation, Athens, Greece, October 17, 1904.*

Fruit Boxes for South Africa.—Boxes intended for the South African markets for the fruits specified should be of the following dimensions:

Pears and apples.—Length, $21\frac{1}{2}$ inches; width, 12 inches; depth, $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches; sides, $4\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{3}{4}$ by $21\frac{1}{2}$ inches; ends, $4\frac{1}{2}$ by $\frac{3}{4}$ by 12 inches.

Apricots, peaches, and nectarines.—Length, $21\frac{1}{2}$ inches; width, 13 inches; depth, 4 inches; sides, 3 by $\frac{3}{4}$ by $21\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

Plums.—A box half the length of above with a depth of 5 inches.

Mixed fruits.—18 by 12 by 5 inches; sides, 4 by $\frac{1}{2}$ by 18 inches; ends, 4 by $\frac{3}{4}$ by $11\frac{1}{2}$ inches.—*Joseph E. Proffit, Consul, Pretoria, Transvaal, October 5, 1904.*

Temperance in the British Army.—General Lord Methuen, when speaking recently of the progress of temperance in the British army, stated that the membership of the Army Temperance Association comprises not less than one-fourth of the British army; that in contrasting the present condition of the soldier with that of eleven years ago, the change brought about by the influence of the temperance movement was remarkable, and that there is a higher tone, far less insubordination, and much less beer sold in the canteens. He said that education had also played an important part in the improvement of the soldier.—*Marshal Halstead, Consul, Birmingham, England, October 21, 1904.*

Short Australian Wheat Crop.—Owing to insufficiency of rainfall the wheat crop throughout New South Wales and most of the other Australian States will be a very short one. The newspaper reports from crop correspondents are very gloomy over the situation.—*F. W. Goding, Consul, Newcastle, New South Wales, October 8, 1904.*

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

No. 2125

DAILY CONSULAR REPORTS

DECEMBER 6, 1904

MARKETING GOODS IN CANADA

ERRATA.

On page 2 of Daily Consular Reports, No. 2125, in the second line, after the words "during the," read, "six months ended December 31, 1903," instead of "year ended June 30, 1903." In the caption over the table, read, "six months ended December 31, 1903," instead of "the year ended June 30, 1903."



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No. 2125

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1904

MARKETING GOODS IN CANADA.

(From United States Consul-General Foster, Ottawa, Ontario.)

COUNTRIES MARKETING GOODS.

The following statement, showing the imports into the Dominion of Canada from the several countries during the year ended June 30, 1903, gives in a very succinct manner the relative rank of the countries marketing goods in this country:

Value of imports into Canada, by countries, in the year ended June 30, 1903.

Country.	Value.	Country.	Value.
United States	\$71,881,127	China	\$374,196
British Empire	37,283,805	Italy	194,633
Germany	4,958,613	Cuba	184,823
France	3,011,904	Argentina	151,864
Belgium	1,838,807	Porto Rico	147,846
Japan	1,218,324	Sweden and Norway	131,511
Switzerland	641,075	All other countries	1,053,347
Spain	618,300		
Austria-Hungary	508,936		
Netherlands	475,430	Total	124,674,540

HOW TRADE IS CONDUCTED.

The sales from the United States are effected chiefly by commercial travelers and through the mails. A large part of the business with Great Britain is conducted by representatives of Canadian commercial houses permanently residing in Great Britain or periodically visiting that country. Many foreign firms have agents resident in Montreal and Toronto. I am unable to ascertain the proportionate amounts of business transacted by the several methods mentioned.

CREDITS.

The general terms of credit for wholesale hardware are four months, with 2 per cent discount allowed for payment within ten to thirty days. Wholesale dry goods are billed as of October 1 on four months' time from that date, subject to 3 or 4 per cent discount for cash in

NOTE BY BUREAU OF STATISTICS.—On May 19, 1904, a circular was mailed to the consuls of the United States wherein they were instructed to report for their respective districts, (1) the countries marketing goods therein, (2) how trade is conducted, (3) credits, and (4) mercantile agencies and commercial ratings. The replies to this circular will be published as received in the Daily Consular Reports, and when completed in this form will be issued as a volume of Special Consular Reports.

thirty days. Shipments are generally made several months in advance of date of bill. Groceries are usually sold on thirty and sixty days' time. Four months' time is often given on tea, with 3 per cent discount for thirty day payment. For the principal classes of merchandise imported from European countries the terms are, to manufacturers, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent discount for payment in thirty to sixty days, or four months' time; to warehousemen, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 per cent discount for payment in sixty days, or six months' credit; on silks from Switzerland, sixty days' time, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent discount for cash.

MERCANTILE RATINGS.

The Bradstreet Company and R. G. Dun & Co. are the principal credit agencies doing business throughout the Dominion. They report the financial standing of individuals as well as of companies and firms.

JOHN G. FOSTER, *Consul-General*.

OTTAWA, ONTARIO, *June 27, 1904.*

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

VANCOUVER

(*From United States Consul Dudley, Vancouver, British Columbia.*)

Goods are brought to this market from the United Kingdom, Australia, China, Japan, and, in smaller quantities, from Germany and France, but by far the largest imports are from the United States.

There are traveling salesmen, representing business houses in the United Kingdom and the United States, who canvass the province regularly. I think the other countries do their business through correspondence.

General terms of credit in this district are similar to those in the United States. The rate of interest is possibly a little higher.

The Bradstreet and R. G. Dun & Co. credit agencies do business here. I understand that these confine their regular reports to persons, firms, and companies who are actively in business, but occasionally make inquiries regarding the standing of persons not engaged in trade.

L. EDWIN DUDLEY, *Consul*.

VANCOUVER, BRITISH COLUMBIA, *June 14, 1904.*

VICTORIA.

(*From United States Consul Smith, Victoria, British Columbia.*)

COUNTRIES MARKETING GOODS.

The bulk of the foreign trade in Victoria is with the United States and England, although trade with Germany, France, Japan, and China

is assuming goodly proportions, especially with the last two, owing to the large number of Asiatics in British Columbia. England, however, ranks second to the United States in goods marketed in this district.

HOW TRADE IS CONDUCTED.

The business is conducted by salesmen, by mail, and by personal visitation. There are several establishments here which every year send members of the firms to the United States, England, France, Germany, and to other countries—also to eastern Canada—to purchase goods. Numerous salesmen, especially from the United States, visit Victoria.

CREDITS.

The terms of credit vary greatly. From England, eastern Canada, and the continent of Europe, goods are purchased generally on ninety days' time. With New York houses three months is the limit; thirty days is the most some dealers will give. With Japan and China, nine months and one year's time are not unfrequently allowed.

MERCANTILE RATINGS.

Bradstreet's and R. G. Dun & Co.'s agencies do business here. The offices have been removed to Vancouver, but agents visit Victoria each month, and keep up reports on Victoria. They report the financial standing of all business houses, whether individuals, companies, or firms.

ABRAHAM E. SMITH, *Consul*.

VICTORIA, BRITISH COLUMBIA, *June 21, 1904.*

MANITOBA.

(*From United States Consul Shank, Winnipeg, Manitoba.*)

The United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, and Switzerland are the only countries that market goods in this district.

Most of the firms doing business here have local representatives, or the goods are procured by buyers who go abroad and purchase.

The general terms of credit are 2 per cent off for cash in sixty or ninety days.

The Bradstreet Company and R. G. Dun & Co. are the only credit agencies doing business here. They report the financial standing of companies and firms only.

SAMUEL H. SHANK, *Consul*.

WINNIPEG, MANITOBA, *August 25, 1904.*

NEW BRUNSWICK.

CAMPBELLTON.

(From United States Commercial Agent Benedict, Campbellton, New Brunswick.)

The United States and Great Britain are the only countries of any importance that market goods in this district. Business is done chiefly through the wholesale houses located at Montreal, Halifax, and St. John, and is conducted both by salesmen and by mail.

The general terms of credit are from thirty to sixty days.

There are no credit agencies in the district.

JAMES S. BENEDICT, *Commercial Agent.*

CAMPBELLTON, NEW BRUNSWICK, *July 1, 1904.*

MONCTON.

(From United States Commercial Agent Beutelspacher, Moncton, New Brunswick.)

The foreign countries which market goods in this consular district are principally the United States, England, Germany, France, Spain, the Netherlands, Belgium, Japan, Greece, China, and the West Indies. The trade is conducted mainly through commercial travelers and brokers stationed at different places, principally Montreal, Toronto, and St. John.

Goods coming from Spain, Greece, and the West Indies are generally bought through letters of credit, but others either by sight draft, with bill of lading attached, or demand draft. Merchants of good standing obtain from four to six months' credit in Great Britain.

The credit agencies generally referred to are Dun & Co. and Bradstreet's. They report the financial standing of companies, firms, and individuals who are directly in business.

GUSTAVE BEUTELSPACHER, *Commercial Agent.*

MONCTON, NEW BRUNSWICK, *June 16, 1904.*

ST. JOHN.

(From United States Consul Myers, St. John, New Brunswick.)

The United States, England, Germany, France, and Switzerland market goods in this district. Goods from the United States are generally purchased by mail direct from the wholesale houses in New York; from England, chiefly through personal representatives of the wholesale merchants in this city (these embrace from 75 to 80 per cent of the goods imported into St. John); from Germany and France, through mail orders. The general terms of credit obtained in England

are from three to six months and in the United States from thirty to sixty days.

Bradstreet and R. G. Dun & Co. report the financial standing of individuals and firms.

IRA B. MYERS, *Consul*.

ST. JOHN, NEW BRUNSWICK, *June 9, 1904.*

WOODSTOCK.

(*From United States Consul Denison, Woodstock, New Brunswick.*)

The United States and the United Kingdom are practically the only foreign countries marketing goods in this district. Goods of other countries, France and Germany in particular, are purchased through jobbers; in fact a large percentage of merchandise sold here is bought of jobbers. Purchases for trade imports are made by visiting the markets in Europe, by traveling salesmen, and by mail. The latter generally predominates, as many groceries as well as dry goods are ordered by mail, to be according to samples and catalogues.

The usual terms of credit are, on foreign imports: Dry goods, six months; groceries, thirty days to three months.

Bradstreet's commercial agency is the authority generally used here for trade purposes, and will report on the financial standing of individuals the same as in the United States.

FRANK C. DENISON, *Consul*.

WOODSTOCK, NEW BRUNSWICK, *June 23, 1904.*

NEWFOUNDLAND.

(*From United States Consul Cornelius, St. Johns, Newfoundland.*)

COUNTRIES MARKETING GOODS.

Virtually all the imports of Newfoundland are from Great Britain, Canada, and the United States. For the fiscal year ended June 30, 1903, the sales of these three countries to this colony were as follows: United States, \$2,950,914; Canada, \$2,869,897; United Kingdom, \$2,173,090; all other countries, \$486,043; total, \$8,479,944.

Of the amount from "all other countries" (\$486,043), \$237,573 represents almost wholly molasses from the British West Indies, and \$120,865 fishery salt from Spain and Portugal, leaving about \$127,605 worth of miscellaneous imports from other markets. In connection

NOTE BY BUREAU OF STATISTICS.—Newfoundland is not in the Dominion of Canada, but the report of Consul Cornelius is inserted here for convenience.

with the foregoing figures it is worth noting that imports from the United States have increased about 50 per cent during the past two years.

HOW TRADE IS CONDUCTED.

Business in this colony is conducted chiefly by salesmen or commercial travelers, who come from Great Britain, Canada, and the United States in steadily growing numbers. Representatives of the leading business houses in the colony, known as "buyers," visit English and American markets twice a year to make purchases. The growth of the colony's trade during the past five years has been over 45 per cent, and there is every indication that trade will grow in a still greater proportion in the future.

CREDITS.

The general terms of credit in this district are sixty-day notes or one-half per cent off invoices as a cash discount.

MERCANTILE RATINGS.

The credit agencies doing business here are Bradstreet's and Dun's. They report the financial standing of companies and firms, and of individuals only when doing business.

GEORGE O. CORNELIUS, *Consul*.

ST. JOHNS, NEWFOUNDLAND, *September 8, 1904.*

Value of trade of the United States with Newfoundland and Labrador in 1902, 1903, and 1904.^a

Year ended June 30—	Imports.	Exports.
1902	\$711,449	\$2,065,282
1903	863,238	2,509,415
1904	1,135,059	2,628,065

^a From data of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

NOVA SCOTIA.

HALIFAX.

Under date of June 10, 1904, United States Consul-General W. R. Holloway, of Halifax, reports as follows for that port: Great Britain, France, Belgium, Germany, Russia, India, West Indies, Italy, Spain, the Philippine Islands, and the United States market goods in Halifax.

The business is conducted by commercial travelers, resident agents and by mail.

The terms of credit are general and by special agreement.

Bradstreet and R. G. Dun & Co. have regular agencies here and publish reports on companies and individuals.

SYDNEY.

(From United States Consul West, Sydney, Nova Scotia.)

The foreign countries that market goods in this district are the United Kingdom and the United States principally. The trade of other countries is of small volume. The business is conducted chiefly through salesmen, who visit here at frequent intervals.

The terms of credit vary, being generally for periods of from three to six months.

There are no regular credit agencies located here. Dun, Wyman, and Bradstreet have correspondents, I believe; they report on the financial standing of firms and individuals, but on this point I am not reliably informed.

GEORGE N. WEST, *Consul.*

SYDNEY, NOVA SCOTIA, *June 13, 1904.*

WINDSOR.

United States Consul Joseph T. Hoke, under date of August 4, 1904, reports that no foreign country markets goods in the consular district of Windsor, Nova Scotia; that there are no importers or their agents selling the goods of foreign countries in the district; and that all such goods are obtained from importers and jobbers at Halifax and St. John or other Canadian cities.

ONTARIO.

AMHERSTBURG.

(From United States Consul Martin, Amherstburg, Ontario.)

England, France, Belgium, and the United States are the only foreign countries that market goods here. Business is conducted chiefly by salesmen, but a great many mail orders are sent to the United States.

The general terms of credit in this district are from thirty days to six months, according to the line of goods purchased.

The principal credit agencies here are Wilbur Mercantile Agency, the International, R. G. Dun & Co., and Bradstreet's. These agencies report the financial standing of individuals, companies, and firms.

CHESTER W. MARTIN, *Consul.*

AMHERSTBURG, ONTARIO, *July 6, 1904.*

GUELPH.

(From United States Consul Daly, Guelph, Ontario.)

The principal foreign countries marketing goods in this district are the United States, Great Britain, and Germany.

Business is conducted chiefly by commission agents for the larger foreign houses having general offices in Toronto, Montreal, and Hamilton, who cover the smaller towns either personally or by subagents.

The general term of credit is four months, 2 per cent discount for cash in thirty days.

Both Dun and Bradstreet's are represented throughout Canada, and the financial standing of any individual or firm in Canada or in the United States may be ascertained.

CHARLES N. DALY, *Consul*.

GUELPH, ONTARIO, *June 9, 1904.*

KINGSTON.

(From United States Consul Twitchell, Kingston, Ontario.)

English, German, and American goods are on the Kingston market.

Agencies or wholesale stores in Toronto and Montreal supply the English, German, and some of the American goods. In some instances English and German salesmen travel through the country, but most of the business is done by Canadian and American salesmen. Other methods of placing goods upon the market here are very rarely used.

The credit agencies of the Bradstreet Company and R. G. Dun & Co. have representatives here.

M. H. TWITCHELL, *Consul*.

KINGSTON, ONTARIO, *June 30, 1904.*

LONDON.

(From United States Consul Culver, London, Ontario.)

Firms in the larger importing countries maintain agencies in Toronto or Montreal, and their goods are sold by samples. These agencies reach the smaller towns through brokers, largely, some through salesmen, while not a few of the firms in Great Britain sell by mail. Representatives of the heaviest dry goods dealers at retail and all the wholesale dealers make annual or semiannual trips to England and order direct from the importing houses, while many importers in Great Britain and some in France and Germany sell direct through their personal representatives or salesmen. Goods from the lesser importing countries are mostly sold through local brokers representing importing houses either in the United States or Europe.

The general terms of credit—that is, such terms as are extended by local dealers, run from thirty to ninety days. Groceries are the exception and are usually sold on from fifteen to thirty days' time. The invoices of goods sold for future delivery are usually dated ahead so as to make the customary time.

The R. G. Dun & Co. and Bradstreet credit agencies are the principal ones doing business here; they report the financial standing of all persons or firms liable to ask credit.

HENRY S. CULVER, *Consul*.

LONDON, ONTARIO, *June 9, 1904.*

ORILLIA.

(*From United States Consul Wakefield, Orillia, Ontario.*)

The United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, Italy, Spain, and Japan market goods in Orillia.

The three first named are by far the most important as to volume of business. They operate through salesmen and by mail. Many leading firms in these countries are represented by importers, who send salesmen through the Dominion. The terms of credit vary from thirty days to six months. Many of the English and German firms give long credits.

Considerable quantities of English and German manufactures are sold by New York importers to Canadian dealers. These goods are shipped either from bonded warehouses in New York or direct from manufacturers.

Only American credit agencies do business here. The financial standing of firms and companies only is given, not the personal or individual standing of different members of a firm.

E. A. WAKEFIELD, *Consul*.

ORILLIA, ONTARIO, *July 11, 1904.*

ST. THOMAS.

(*From United States Consul Burke, St. Thomas, Ontario.*)

The foreign countries marketing goods in this district are the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, and Italy.

Business is conducted both by salesmen and by buyers visiting the countries named.

The general terms of credit in this district are: American houses, mostly 2 per cent with sixty days extra dating; French, German, and British houses average 2 per cent thirty days from first following month.

The credit agencies doing business in the district are R. G. Dun & Co. and Bradstreet's, which will report on individuals or business firms as required.

M. J. BURKE, *Consul*.

ST. THOMAS, ONTARIO, *June 30, 1904.*

SAULT STE. MARIE.

Under date of June 16, 1904, United States Commercial Agent Shotts, Sault Ste. Marie, Ontario, reports that there are no wholesale houses in his district, the trade being supplied chiefly by wholesale houses in eastern Canada; that only one salesman from England visits the district regularly, and very few from the United States; that credit agencies and general business conditions are the same as in cities in the United States along the northern boundary.

TORONTO.

(*From United States Consul Gunsaulus, Toronto, Ontario.*)

The principal foreign countries marketing goods in this district are the United States, Great Britain, Germany, and France. The business is conducted by salesmen, by mail, and by resident agents. Many manufacturers and jobbers of the United States are represented here by salesmen. England and Germany also send salesmen, though to a limited extent, the mails being employed chiefly by these countries.

The terms of credit in this city and district are substantially the same as those given in the United States, namely, cash sales thirty or sixty days; for time sales four months are usually allowed.

The principal mercantile or credit agencies doing business in this city are R. G. Dun & Co., Bradstreet's, and the International. These agencies, as a rule, report only the financial standing of companies and firms, the standing of individuals being seldom reported, except in their capacity as members or directors of companies or firms.

E. N. GUNSAULUS, *Consul*.

TORONTO, ONTARIO, *July 12, 1904.*

QUEBEC.

COATICOOK.

(*From United States Consul Hale, Coaticook, Quebec.*)

The foreign countries marketing goods in the Coaticook district are, in the order of their importance, England, the United States, Germany, France, and Italy.

The trade is conducted principally through salesmen; some by mail. The terms of credit are chiefly thirty and sixty days; some English houses give six months.

Bradstreet's and Dun's commercial agencies report the financial standing of individuals, as well as that of companies and firms.

FRANKLIN D. HALE, *Consul*.

COATICOOK, QUEBEC, *June 8, 1904.*

GASPÉ.

(*From United States Consul Dickson, Gaspé, Quebec.*)

The foreign countries marketing goods in this district are Great Britain, Brazil, Portugal, Spain, Italy, and the United States. Business is nearly all done by cable and mail. The general terms of credit are from sixty to ninety days.

There are no credit agencies in this district, but the banks here (the Bank of Toronto and the Bank of Nova Scotia) occasionally report the financial standing of companies and firms, but do not make a business of so doing.

ALMAR F. DICKSON, *Consul*.

GASPÉ, QUEBEC, *June 15, 1904.*

QUEBEC.

(*From United States Consul Henry, Quebec, Quebec.*)

The foreign countries marketing goods at this port are the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, China, Japan, Russia, the South American countries, and the West Indies.

The business is conducted both by salesmen and by mail.

The general terms of credit are cash, and from one to six months, according to goods.

All commercial countries have commercial agents here who report the financial standing of both individuals and firms.

WILLIAM W. HENRY, *Consul*.

QUEBEC, QUEBEC, *June 9, 1904.*

RIMOUSKI.

(*From United States Commercial Agent Dennison, Rimouski, Quebec.*)

All the foreign goods handled in this district come from the United States or England, with the exception of gin from Holland, wines from France and Spain, and fruit from Italy.

Business is conducted chiefly through the wholesale houses of Quebec and Montreal, which send their representatives through the district from four to six times a year.

Almost all goods are sold at thirty days; hardware, boots, shoes, and agricultural implements, four to six months.

The only credit agencies doing business in the district are R. G. Dun & Co. and the Bradstreet Company, both of New York. They report the financial standing of individuals as well as that of companies and firms.

E. HALDEMAN DENNISON, *Commercial Agent.*

RIMOUSKI, QUEBEC, *June 21, 1904.*

ST. JOHNS.

(*From United States Consul Deal, St. Johns, Quebec.*)

All foreign goods marketed in this district are bought of jobbers in Toronto and Montreal. Business is conducted chiefly through salesmen representing these jobbers.

The general terms of credit are three and four months.

The credit agencies represented here are R. G. Dun & Co. and Bradstreet, which report the standing of all commercial interests, companies, firms, and individuals.

CHARLES DEAL, *Consul.*

ST. JOHNS, QUEBEC, *June 21, 1904.*

STANBRIDGE.

(*From United States Commercial Agent Johnson, Stanbridge, Quebec.*)

The four principal foreign countries marketing goods in this district are Great Britain, the United States, Germany, and France. Great Britain, by reason of the preferential agreement with Canada, has, in the past year or two, almost doubled her trade in this section of the Dominion. The United States, in the face of this discriminating tariff in favor of the mother country, has shown almost as great an increase as England. Germany, on the other hand, by reason of the surtax imposed by Canada on her goods, will have a decrease in the fiscal year which ends this month. The trade with France has remained unchanged.

The nearest large seaport to Stanbridge is Montreal, where all goods for this consular district are purchased, through salesmen, from wholesale houses. This is the only way that business is carried on here.

The general terms of credit in the following branches of trade are: Groceries, thirty days net; dry goods, four months from date; tobacco, thirty days net; paints, four months or thirty days with a discount; hardware, four months or thirty days with a discount; agricultural

implements and tools, four months, and where a heavy order is received very much longer time is allowed. By the above it will be seen that the general time allowed for cash is thirty days, and for time four months.

The credit agencies doing business in this consular district are Dun & Co., Bradstreet, The Mercantile Agency of Toronto and Montreal, and Brosseau; the latter is principally referred to in the province of Quebec. All these agencies report the financial standing of companies and firms only.

FELIX S. S. JOHNSON,
Commercial Agent.

STANBRIDGE, QUEBEC, *June 9, 1904.*

THREE RIVERS.

(*From United States Vice-Consul Braman, Three Rivers, Quebec.*)

The foreign countries that market goods in this district are the United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, and China.

Business is conducted chiefly by mail, with the exception of that of the United States, which is largely done by salesmen.

The terms of credit in this district are sight, thirty, sixty, and ninety days.

The credit agencies doing business here are the Quebec Bank and Hochelaga Bank. They will report the financial standing of individuals and firms.

W. W. BRAMAN, *Vice-Consul.*

THREE RIVERS, QUEBEC, *July 11, 1904.*

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND.

(*From United States Consul Vail, Charlottetown, Prince Edward Island.*)

The United States, Great Britain, Germany, Switzerland, and Japan market goods, to a certain extent, in this province.

American goods are mostly sold by direct orders from dealers here, as very few American agents visit this place. Goods from Great Britain are sold by agents sent direct. German goods are principally sold by Canadian agents.

The general terms of credit on goods from the United States are from 2 to 3 per cent off in ten days, or sixty days net. British manufacturers allow 2½ per cent off in thirty days, or credit from four to six months, mostly in open accounts.

Bradstreet, Dun, and Wyman have credit agencies here reporting companies and individual dealers.

DELMAR J. VAIL, *Consul.*

CHARLOTTETOWN, PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND, *June 19, 1904.*

TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

(From data of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.)

Exports, by articles, from the United States to Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island in the fiscal years ended June 30, 1893, 1897, 1901, 1902, and 1903.

Articles.	1893.	1897.	1901.	1902.	1903.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Agricultural implements.....	13,470	24,800	106,835	103,206	109,878
Animals.....	7,583	56,852	10,927	24,185	480,650
Blacking.....	11,157	10,755	12,074	7,449	12,258
Books, maps, engravings, etchings, etc.....	33,815	58,715	54,089	33,674	47,744
Brass, and manufactures of.....	6,622	15,854	24,517	22,256	29,282
Breadstuffs:					
Corn.....	67,041	182,700	360,850	835,996	368,112
Corn meal.....	117,093	19,651	34,234	37,622	24,901
Wheat flour.....	82,118	12,988	10,540	13,171	12,989
All other.....	5,906	13,523	15,838	13,002	15,889
Cars, carriages, other vehicles, and parts of.					
Cycles, and parts of.....		73,701	13,992	8,980	8,019
All other.....	21,246	19,943	50,684	20,316	45,324
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, and medicines.....	39,648	59,411	108,485	92,897	87,353
Clocks and watches, and parts of.....	5,709	10,715	8,140	7,016	9,538
Coal:					
Anthracite.....	350,603	377,699	519,949	422,364	301,058
Bituminous.....	9,572	565	171,820	25,274	12,713
Copper, and manufactures of.....	4,381	10,912	67,372	58,335	76,854
Cotton, and manufactures of:					
Unmanufactured.....	716,195	714,818	788,276	887,418	1,051,190
Manufactures of.....	87,018	95,033	99,980	82,100	83,325
Earthen, stone, and china ware.....	1,225	4,351	11,629	4,701	13,109
Fertilizers.....	88,838	75,644	177,915	218,226	243,504
Fibers, vegetable, and textile grasses, manufactures of.....	125,931	131,926	161,879	168,949	180,439
Fish.....	20,518	9,567	23,415	13,105	15,261
Fruits and nuts.....	121,937	71,853	129,640	119,649	179,981
Grease, grease scraps, and all soap stock.....	25,560	70,402	24,665	83,345	170,313
Gunpowder and other explosives.....	7,816	8,072	8,958	8,146	10,814
Hides and skins, other than furs.....	10,122	33,275	1,652		731
Household and personal effects.....		1,206	11,269	6,756	14,566
India rubber and gutta-percha, manufactures of.....	33,189	29,044	41,862	52,442	40,134
Instruments, etc., for scientific purposes.....	13,018	22,242	42,297	47,671	53,522
Iron and steel, and manufactures of:					
Scrap and old, etc.....		4,129	33,883	11,096	4,278
Bars and rods of steel.....	9,066	79,534	89,211	44,799	111,733
Rails for railways, steel.....	173	102,096	413,516	13,645	13,350
Builders' hardware, saws, and tools.....	67,601	75,002	109,348	91,029	156,937
Machinery, machines, and parts of.....	105,051	136,692	616,250	438,407	460,681
Pipes and fittings.....			118,267	49,667	119,544
All other.....	111,316	161,274	345,452	212,971	264,232
Lamps, chandeliers, etc.....	6,712	14,507	17,743	11,552	17,824
Leather, and manufactures of.....	39,490	46,919	57,838	62,179	77,270
Marble and stone, and manufactures of.....	16,922	13,427	19,777	20,118	31,168
Musical instruments.....	18,303	12,551	16,520	12,018	22,809
Naval stores:					
Rosin, tar, turpentine, and pitch.....	17,169	19,706	22,207	21,147	34,180
Turpentine, spirits of.....	13,245	11,110	22,205	18,351	23,370
Oil cake and oil-cake meal.....	1,373	3,744	4,539	12,890	14,187
Oils:					
Mineral, refined—					
Illuminating.....	247,561	102,880	228,479	185,866	284,160
Lubricating, etc.....	39,195	23,344	20,933	16,307	25,226
All other.....	1,444	4,207	3,416	27,689	10,026
Paints, pigments, and colors.....	18,028	19,598	24,872	19,970	22,637
Paper, and manufactures of.....	28,162	33,413	50,668	37,625	52,929
Plated ware.....	1,690	7,891	7,503	3,742	9,318
Provisions, comprising meat and dairy products:					
Beef, canned.....	9,588	7,456	7,673	11,728	7,371
Beef, salted or pickled, and other cured.....	140,296	97,309	87,156	97,324	129,247
Bacon, ham, and pork, salted, etc.....	80,574	150,586	146,237	175,721	193,583
All other meat products.....	29,796	51,499	25,683	21,129	33,447
Dairy products.....	13,696	753	3,456	72	2
Seeds.....	6,918	20,443	42,939	32,156	20,979
Straw and palm leaf, manufactures of.....	8,140	3,908	5,133	13,817	4,871
Sugar and molasses:					
Molasses and sirup.....	388	5,372	39,839	251,544	301,628
Sugar, refined.....	72		44,545	6,204	11,254

Exports, by articles, from the United States to Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, etc.—Cont'd.

Articles.	1893.	1897.	1901.	1902.	1903.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Tobacco, unmanufactured.....	39,761	39,938	34,969	20,488	31,222
Vegetables.....	11,525	32,416	21,840	31,251	36,426
Wood, and manufactures of:					
Timber.....	4,090	9,971	92,687	145,960	137,598
Lumber.....	27,813	42,677	146,896	146,466	228,193
Manufactures of.....	60,305	92,067	119,682	106,139	188,372
Wool, and manufactures of.....	19,167	72,934	71,315	66,910	77,166
All other articles.....	112,669	168,779	460,230	298,391	279,569
Total domestic exports.....	3,333,890	3,884,348	6,666,680	5,649,619	7,136,278
Total foreign exports.....	328,211	363,376	345,250	356,583	487,116
Total exports of merchandise.....	3,662,101	4,247,724	7,011,930	6,006,202	7,623,394

Exports, by articles, from the United States to Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Ruperts Land, the Northwest Territories, and Yukon, in the fiscal years ended June 30, 1893, 1897, 1901, 1902, and 1903.

Articles.	1893.	1897.	1901.	1902.	1903.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Agricultural implements:					
Mowers and reapers, and parts of.....	26,129	231,337	1,186,141	1,636,731	1,817,628
All other.....	101,763	199,454	804,954	1,351,787	2,067,881
Animals:					
Horses.....	252,266	448,848	804,577	1,646,527	2,021,229
All other.....	37,346	431,818	901,098	937,089	903,967
Books, maps, engravings, etchings, etc.....	254,961	510,363	1,049,719	1,176,911	1,468,157
Breadstuffs:					
Corn.....	2,933,407	2,346,898	4,150,852	1,533,004	3,104,064
Rye.....	154,656	102,071	196,450	94,369	351,960
Wheat.....	4,071,953	3,909,902	5,152,656	5,176,907	3,954,314
Wheat flour.....	1,711,748	2,396,489	189,068	218,953	289,953
All other.....	154,434	285,881	573,615	287,367	527,105
Cars, carriages, other vehicles, and parts of:					
Cycles, and parts of.....		625,989	263,284	132,078	148,683
All other, and parts of.....	80,384	82,809	607,534	1,054,835	1,234,582
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, and medicines.....	566,887	910,361	1,646,882	1,839,209	1,886,762
Coal and coke:					
Coal—					
Anthracite.....	4,172,988	5,167,073	7,670,531	6,411,263	6,324,529
Bituminous.....	2,478,487	3,496,054	6,950,096	7,870,162	9,590,696
Coke.....		118,737	515,961	664,461	807,595
Copper, manufactures of.....	115,228	356,913	1,054,164	1,147,822	1,260,387
Cotton, and manufactures of:					
Unmanufactured, including waste.....	2,087,131	2,423,042	4,335,522	4,814,590	4,923,197
Manufactures of—					
Cloths.....	613,649	1,740,343	445,606	551,518	874,547
All other, including waste, cop. and mill.....	1,177,854	1,136,333	1,641,162	1,877,098	1,867,452
Earthen, stone, and china ware.....	136,192	71,729	175,397	208,232	255,143
Fibers, vegetable, and textile grasses, manufactures of.....	54,686	280,912	1,039,448	1,666,291	2,032,291
Fish.....	245,249	197,601	312,500	297,471	336,992
Fruits, including nuts.....	520,715	541,931	655,680	1,198,634	1,398,038
Furs and fur skins.....	50,238	218,513	587,662	756,453	997,508
Glass and glassware.....	267,093	274,563	564,265	585,901	728,968
Glucose and grape sugar.....	11,496	48,942	141,402	73,064	9,768
Grease, grease scraps, and all soap stock.....	56,417	109,506	204,971	173,958	292,823
Hides and skins, other than furs.....	523,715	907,423	559,664	379,911	519,847
Household and personal effects.....		176,597	1,027,828	987,820	1,253,227
India rubber, manufactures of.....	402,610	347,248	541,470	522,839	595,592
Instruments and apparatus for scientific purposes, etc.....	68,431	261,104	103,460	572,881	659,832
Iron and steel, and manufactures of:					
Pig iron.....	316,497	214,514	340,171	532,448	249,749
Scrap and old, fit only for remanufacture.....		18,900	129,521	187,364	87,892
Bars or rods of steel—					
Wire rods.....			203,583	359,442	985,198
All other.....	1,554	163,850	106,797	230,112	333,993
Rails for railways—Steel.....	116,766	806,354	2,964,055	1,100,696	306,399
Sheets and plates—					
Iron.....	2,484	47,841	182,089	98,060	80,097
Steel.....	1,923	38,561	192,713	377,180	617,161

Exports, by articles, from the United States to Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, etc.—Cont'd.

Articles.	1893.	1897.	1901.	1902.	1903.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Iron and steel and manufactures of—					
Continued.					
Structural iron and steel			428,387	1,040,841	962,209
Wire	97,621	214,286	647,726	1,174,997	1,305,699
Bulldozers' hardware, saws, and tools	405,832	358,336	583,781	980,881	1,515,441
Castings, not elsewhere specified	211,123	119,024	222,558	561,661	678,286
Machinery—					
Electrical			769,565	999,555	1,146,574
Steam engines, and parts of	16,814	73,344	696,870	826,915	1,653,574
All other	954,219	1,380,233	4,600,882	5,305,303	6,682,598
Pipes and fittings			346,490	592,283	1,210,782
All other	1,047,475	3,485,546	7,598,220	6,166,938	4,614,190
Jewelry, and manufactures of gold and silver	286,304	276,674	689,243	736,387	767,796
Leather and manufactures of:					
Leather	153,286	668,597	582,092	505,417	635,726
Manufactures of—					
Boots and shoes	44,209	183,428	343,713	419,315	546,180
All other	193,043	268,881	382,888	418,925	449,846
Naval stores: Turpentine, spirits of	68,391	118,056	262,142	278,648	400,376
Oils: Mineral, refined—					
Illuminating	213,894	389,593	545,458	620,081	992,766
All other	41,739	85,228	235,336	310,117	393,450
Paper, and manufactures of	168,864	612,125	1,206,968	1,306,699	1,324,612
Provisions, comprising meat and dairy products:					
Beef, canned	97,503	72,666	24,049	62,280	37,490
Beef, fresh, salted, and other cured	88,926	36,866	11,809	27,501	117,474
Bacon, hams, and pork	663,731	970,066	627,809	948,364	1,526,102
Lard	155,267	170,408	153,329	65,079	85,871
Dairy products—					
Butter	50,783	220,719	16,532	7,208	104,519
Cheese	824,600	710,434	108,245	12,294	9,304
All other	109,604	63,203	284,657	283,255	866,536
Seeds:					
Clover	58,262	260,811	226,348	74,673	139,306
Flaxseed or linseed	178,141	54,619	650,800	1,068,835	580,910
Timothy	417,433	306,779	213,361	240,197	169,324
All other	21,205	44,554	73,304	79,406	65,821
Tobacco: Leaf	1,505,933	1,478,318	970,302	1,142,326	1,280,322
Wood, and manufactures of:					
Timber	816,321	1,094,983	512,163	852,751	1,249,829
Lumber—					
Boards, deals, and planks	435,006	735,718	1,358,640	1,488,366	2,006,625
All other	37,385	181,709	482,278	371,373	564,660
Manufactures of	702,119	1,034,372	1,130,761	1,301,101	1,400,872
Wool, raw	7,852	282,237	4,036	346	13,390
All other articles	4,209,250	3,609,942	6,583,148	7,444,141	9,652,706
Total domestic exports	38,048,422	51,205,564	83,945,432	88,395,867	101,815,602
Total foreign exports	3,251,729	5,934,097	6,990,281	7,292,806	8,067,662
Total exports of merchandise	41,300,151	57,139,661	90,935,713	95,688,675	109,883,264

Exports, by articles, from the United States to British Columbia in the fiscal years ended June 30, 1893, 1897, 1901, 1902, and 1903.

Articles.	1893.	1897.	1901.	1902.	1903.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Agricultural implements.....	5, 141	6, 687	27, 687	29, 339	27, 385
Animals:					
Cattle	1, 214	15, 186	40, 098	71, 082	13, 573
Horses	30, 030	22, 861	48, 384	137, 671	76, 507
Sheep	74, 780	71, 779	122, 197	153, 751	150, 784
All other, including fowls.....	7, 216	12, 370	59, 531	56, 143	35, 457
Books, maps, engravings, etchings, etc.....	21, 159	34, 546	83, 366	81, 806	92, 843
Breadstuffs:					
Wheat flour	206, 657	102, 001	142, 118	250, 428	137, 082
All other	71, 467	175, 808	319, 289	381, 718	242, 405
Cars, carriages, other vehicles, and parts of.....	9, 411	50, 579	159, 982	111, 148	84, 365
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, and medicines.....	40, 198	156, 552	202, 766	174, 753	159, 926
Cotton, manufactures of	44, 159	89, 268	195, 301	148, 674	81, 772
Eggs	8, 637	36, 037	127, 790	86, 668	18, 625
Fibers, vegetable, and textile grasses, manufactures of.....	12, 413	26, 658	51, 094	34, 897	40, 089
Fish	24, 168	209, 562	386, 175	344, 006	391, 557
Fruits, including nuts.....	49, 538	131, 046	452, 190	505, 388	477, 000
Furs and fur skins.....	63, 228	24, 841	32, 682	66, 220	28, 118
Glass and glassware	13, 015	28, 756	47, 741	45, 063	34, 899
Gunpowder and other explosives	13, 598	29, 967	76, 105	96, 475	54, 735
Hay	13, 090	33, 640	100, 431	470, 651	25, 816
India rubber, manufactures of	18, 045	25, 384	68, 421	90, 534	66, 341
Instruments and apparatus for scientific purposes, etc	5, 484	21, 317	38, 818	102, 258	53, 116
Iron and steel, and manufactures of:					
Builders' hardware, saws, and tools	25, 183	90, 045	144, 665	115, 745	135, 413
Machinery	57, 726	192, 918	655, 221	853, 844	570, 192
All other	146, 044	324, 418	599, 364	722, 791	681, 423
Leather, and manufactures of.....	27, 602	42, 212	98, 829	100, 432	140, 343
Oils: Mineral, refined	62, 132	63, 444	43, 423	28, 839	32, 481
Paper, and manufactures of	14, 106	41, 466	70, 794	71, 422	71, 169
Provisions, comprising meat and dairy products:					
Bacon, hams, and pork	41, 923	114, 561	359, 365	363, 698	213, 531
Lard	3, 553	24, 832	71, 975	59, 176	14, 812
Butter	36, 442	37, 179	112, 101	85, 885	20, 676
All other	65, 653	179, 745	315, 130	250, 574	106, 876
Sugar, refined	2, 082	2, 317	12, 203	11, 442	4, 524
Tobacco, and manufactures of	12, 379	27, 439	57, 350	50, 718	52, 338
Vegetables	28, 674	59, 542	164, 211	267, 278	101, 809
Wood, and manufactures of:					
Timber	4, 103	79, 763	59, 971	57, 815	67, 570
Lumber—					
Boards, deals, planks, etc	4, 186	45, 443	54, 128	43, 580	53, 862
All other	4, 056	19, 368	19, 077	20, 480	36, 357
Manufactures of—					
Furniture	66, 318	169, 179	119, 255	112, 984	101, 126
All other	21, 349	57, 604	70, 541	67, 221	74, 987
Wool, manufactures of	19, 712	25, 584	266, 817	161, 750	64, 435
All other articles	247, 363	478, 752	1, 033, 760	766, 540	592, 264
Total domestic exports.....	1, 644, 534	3, 375, 136	7, 110, 346	7, 650, 886	5, 528, 258
Total foreign exports.....	187, 545	166, 300	731, 225	297, 230	231, 872
Total exports of merchandise	1, 832, 079	3, 541, 436	7, 841, 571	7, 948, 116	5, 760, 130

Summary, by provinces, of exports from the United States to the Dominion of Canada in the fiscal years ended June 30, 1893, 1897, 1901, 1902, and 1903.

Provinces.	1893.	1897.	1901.	1902.	1903.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island.....	3, 662, 101	4, 247, 724	7, 011, 930	6, 006, 202	7, 623, 394
Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Ruperts Land, Northwest Territories, and Yukon.....	41, 300, 151	57, 139, 661	90, 935, 713	96, 688, 675	109, 883, 264
British Columbia.....	1, 832, 079	3, 541, 436	7, 841, 571	7, 948, 116	5, 760, 130
Grand total.....	46, 794, 331	64, 928, 821	106, 789, 214	109, 642, 993	123, 266, 788

Value of trade of the United States with the Dominion of Canada 1873 to 1904.

Year ended June 30—	Imports.	Exports.			Excess of—	
		Domestic.	Foreign.	Total.	Imports.	Exports.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1873	37,175,254	28,350,296	4,184,689	32,534,984	4,640,270	
1874	34,173,586	37,249,196	4,578,708	41,827,904		7,654,318
1875	27,867,615	30,596,060	3,951,159	34,547,219		6,679,604
1876	28,805,964	29,945,801	3,429,918	33,375,719		4,569,755
1877	24,164,755	34,741,602	2,676,713	37,418,315		13,253,560
1878	25,044,811	33,802,468	3,344,214	37,146,682		12,101,871
1879	25,719,771	27,172,066	2,432,329	29,604,385		3,884,614
1880	32,988,564	26,757,478	2,702,779	29,460,257	3,528,307	
1881	37,684,101	34,199,694	3,703,628	37,903,322		219,221
1882	50,775,581	33,234,735	3,265,668	36,500,403	14,275,178	
1883	44,294,158	40,716,605	3,700,605	44,417,110		122,952
1884	38,399,835	40,423,820	3,882,376	44,306,196		5,906,361
1885	36,695,685	34,112,254	4,133,390	38,245,634		1,549,949
1886	37,304,036	30,644,285	2,818,515	33,462,800	3,841,236	
1887	37,847,277	32,328,036	2,660,074	34,988,110	2,859,167	
1888	42,924,554	33,073,866	2,808,517	35,882,383	7,042,171	
1889	42,738,074	38,279,044	2,328,517	40,607,561	2,130,513	
1890	39,042,977	37,327,963	2,954,145	40,282,108		1,239,131
1891	39,087,782	36,052,613	2,095,165	38,147,778	940,004	
1892	34,954,203	41,006,120	2,293,667	43,299,787		8,345,584
1893	37,777,463	43,026,846	3,767,485	46,794,332		9,016,869
1894	30,790,916	50,040,870	6,623,224	56,664,094		25,873,178
1895	36,574,327	47,787,501	5,067,268	52,854,769		16,280,442
1896	40,887,565	53,063,247	6,624,674	59,687,921		18,800,356
1897	40,309,371	58,465,048	6,463,773	64,928,821		24,619,450
1898	31,870,486	77,450,465	6,263,621	83,714,086		51,843,600
1899	31,220,967	81,010,379	6,964,582	87,974,961		56,753,994
1900	39,369,074	88,030,336	7,289,634	95,319,970		55,950,896
1901	42,482,163	97,722,458	8,066,756	105,789,214		63,307,061
1902	48,076,124	101,696,372	7,946,621	109,642,993		61,566,869
1903	54,781,418	114,480,038	8,786,650	123,266,788		68,485,370
1904	51,552,791	122,234,039	9,000,946	131,234,985		79,682,194

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DECEMBER 7, 1904

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DURABILITY OF NEW ZEALAND TIMBERS.

(From United States Consul-General Dillingham, Auckland, New Zealand.)

Answering numerous inquiries as to the durability of New Zealand timbers, I give herewith a summary of the telegraph inspector's report to the commissioner of telegraphs on this subject.

Dark-red totara.—When grown upon hilly land this timber is more lasting than when grown upon flat or damp ground. The nature of the soil in which the pole is erected also materially affects its life. In limestone, dry, or sandy soils it becomes affected with dry rot below the ground and its usefulness or life is lessened by half. Dry rot appears to be a communicable disease, as a new telegraph pole placed in the same hole from which an affected pole has been removed soon becomes diseased, or if a diseased pole is stacked with poles free from dry rot they, too, soon begin to show signs of decay. The durability of poles which have been seasoned before erection or cut from partially dead trees is not so great as that of those cut from vigorous growing trees. The question as to whether trees cut in winter or summer have the more lasting qualities is not definitely settled, but so far as can be judged in the case of totara, which is evergreen, it is immaterial when the timber is felled. Some poles of totara erected in damp ground as far back as 1868 and others in pumice soil thirty years ago are found to be in perfect condition at the present time.

Light-colored totara.—There is a light-colored totara which, owing to its short life, is quite unsuited for telegraph poles. The charring of totara before erection reduced the life of the poles one-half or even more.

Silver pine.—This is also a splendid timber for telegraph poles. Its durability in some respects is equal to if not greater than totara, but its use is limited, owing to the fact that lengths of more than about 20 feet are not obtainable. Although it grows almost invariably in wet ground, the soil in which it is afterwards used does not appear to affect its durability to any appreciable extent. It possesses two superior qualities—it does not contract dry rot and it hardens considerably in the ground. A board cut in 1898 from the stump of a pole erected in 1870 or 1871 is still in a perfect state of preservation after being in the ground twenty-eight years.

Kauri.—This timber grows almost exclusively in the northern portion of the North Island, and its use is practically restricted to that locality. While it has a distinct advantage in being obtainable in almost any length required, it is somewhat short lived generally, and is affected

by the nature of the soil in which it is placed to a far greater extent than totara or silver pine. In pumice the life of a kauri pole is rarely more than fifteen years, and frequent renewals at lesser periods have to be made. In clay swamps, continuously wet, the usefulness of this timber is doubled, while in sandy limestone or rough gravel its life is intermediate between the two extremes.

Kauraka, or New Zealand cedar.—This is also a very durable wood, but the supply is limited, as it grows on high ground only. It is very tough and free from knots and shakes, but, like totara, it becomes affected with dry rot in certain ground. Poles erected in the seventies in the vicinity of Tophouse, 2,400 feet above sea level, are still in use. If the timber were grown in larger quantities, it would be a particularly useful wood for telegraph poles or fencing posts, as it will not burn. Attempts to fire it only result in its being charred.

Black pine, or matai.—A considerable number of black pine poles were erected previous to 1875, but generally their life was short, ten or twelve years being about the average, although there have been some exceptions. The timber is very subject to dry rot and to the wood maggot.

Black birch.—This timber is quite unsuitable for telegraph poles, as it lasts but a very short time.

Puriri.—This timber has a high reputation, but it can not be obtained in lengths suitable for telegraph poles.

SUMMARY.

There is some diversity of opinion as to the relative merits of totara and silver pine timbers. Although silver pine has its advocates, the fact that it is practically unobtainable in longer lengths than 20 feet renders it less useful than totara. Silver pine, though a short-grained wood, lasts well in the ground, but the experience of the post and telegraph department is that totara is in general the best New Zealand timber for telegraph poles, and it is almost exclusively used. If the pole to begin with is free from symptoms of dry rot and the sap entirely removed, its life is long, say, up to thirty years, in the ground. It is, however, a very weak timber for standing a strain, and unless the pole is large it is likely to snap in a gale or from a sudden jar of any kind. This weakness requires that for a line carrying a few wires a fairly large pole must be used. The quality of the soil is a factor in the durability of a totara pole and probably of any other class of pole. In the Otago district, limestone country is the worst. Kawaka (New Zealand cedar) is also a very good timber, having an advantage peculiarly its own in that it will not burn. Black pine has been found durable in some cases, but it is liable in certain soils to be eaten into by a large worm.

F. DILLINGHAM, *Consul-General.*

AUCKLAND, NEW ZEALAND, *September 27, 1904.*

MUNICH, GERMANY.

(From United States Consul-General Wright, Munich, Germany.)

POPULATION, ART, MUSIC, AND EDUCATION.

Munich, the capital of the kingdom of Bavaria and the seat of the Bavarian government, is the third city of Germany as regards population. It is the center of German art and music, and its university ranks second to none in the Empire. It is not a great industrial center, owing chiefly to its distance from the coal and iron producing districts, although efforts are being made to facilitate access by means of waterways and reduced freight rates. A remarkable proof of the development of the city is given by the fact that its population has doubled in the last twenty-five years, having increased from 213,000 in 1880 to 515,000 in 1903. Great and notable improvements have been made in the architecture, drainage, lighting, street cleaning, and street cars of the city.

Population of Munich, and number of marriages, births, and deaths per 1,000 inhabitants in 1881 and in the years 1891 to 1903.

Year.	Popula- tion.	Per 1,000 inhabitants.		
		Marriages.	Births.	Deaths.
1881	233,600	7.0	40.2	32.4
1891	357,000	9.8	38.2	27.6
1892	372,000	9.2	36.6	26.1
1893	385,000	9.3	36.7	26.2
1894	399,000	10.2	35.9	23.6
1895	400,000	10.2	36.0	25.8
1896	415,500	10.5	36.5	22.7
1897	430,000	10.9	36.7	24.3
1898	446,000	11.8	36.4	22.8
1899	466,000	12.1	36.7	24.2
1900	490,000	12.4	37.0	25.1
1901	503,000	11.4	37.6	22.2
1902	509,000	9.7	36.4	21.4
1903	515,000	9.2	34.4	20.7

The number of students attending the University of Munich in 1903 was 9,555. Students at the technical colleges numbered 5,618, and other colleges and high schools had an attendance of about 12,000. At the 46 public schools of Munich the attendance was 56,551. The cost of these schools is given as follows, per pupil: 1873, 33 marks (\$7.85); 1880, 55 marks (\$13.09); 1890, 59 marks (\$14.04); 1896, 75 marks (\$17.85). The cost per pupil for 1903 is not given, but the cost of the public schools per capita of the population of the city is given at 9.77 marks (\$2.32).

FOOD PRICES.

Beer, the national drink of Bavaria, is an important feature of Munich, both in its brewing and consumption. The consumption of beer per head per annum of the population shows a steady decrease; from 123 gallons in 1885 to 109 gallons in 1895, 94 gallons in 1900, and 89.3 gallons in 1903.

Prices of principal foods at the public markets of Munich in 1903.

Articles.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Articles.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.
	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>		<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>
Beef pound..	13.5	35.7	Beans pound..	13.0	14.0
Veal do.....	17.1	19.0	Potatoes, common.. 100 pounds..	71.8	79.0
Mutton do.....	12.1	18.5	Potatoes, best do.....	206.8	228.0
Pork do.....	18.0	19.0	Apples pound..	5.2	7.8
Hares each..	65.2	76.8	Pears do.....	4.7	7.3
Geese do.....	86.1	115.9	Flour do.....	4.5	5.7
Ducks do.....	58.5	72.5	Rice do.....	5.7	7.1
Hens do.....	27.8	48.0	Barley do.....	5.7	6.6
Eggs, fresh dozen..	12.8	14.7	Sago do.....	6.6	7.1
Butter, fresh pound..	28.5	30.4	Bread do.....	3.0	3.8
Butter, ordinary do.....	20.9	26.4	Coffee do.....	23.8	57.1
Trout do.....	71.4	83.3	Tea do.....	47.6	130.9
Salmon do.....	80.9	98.0	Sugar do.....	7.1	8.0
Cabbage each..	2.8	4.9	Milk quart..	4.7	5.9
Turnips pound..	2.8	3.0			

STREETS AND RAILWAYS.

The streets of Munich, all of which are electrically lighted and cleanly kept, are well paved, about two-thirds with macadam and one-third with asphalt. The cost of maintenance in 1900 was \$483,532 and in 1903, \$657,881; the cost of cleaning in 1900 was \$79,893 and in 1903, \$150,018. The electric street car lines have a length of 58½ miles, the number of motor cars is 288, and of ordinary passenger cars 281. The street car lines are nominally in the hands of a private corporation, but in reality the city corporation directs the operation and management and is also responsible for their financial undertakings. The steam railways of Bavaria are, with minor exceptions, all owned and controlled by the government.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

The following condensed table gives the value of exports of the principal articles from the Munich consular district to the United States for the years ended June 30, 1903 and 1904:

Value of principal articles exported from the Munich consular district to the United States in 1903 and 1904.

Articles.	1903.	1904.	Increase.	Decrease.
Artificial flowers	\$6,769	\$17,218	\$10,449	
Beer	83,825	98,408	14,578	
Books	7,184	3,709		\$3,475
Brushes	40,270	31,397		8,873
Chronos	63,751	67,017	3,266	
Clocks	11,324	15,937	4,613	
Fireworks	5,428	1,963		3,465
Furniture	23,714	11,715		11,999
Leather gloves	175,145	112,978		62,167
Metal paper	28,277	37,417	9,140	
Metal goods	2,756	10,810	8,054	
Paintings	129,235	168,336	39,101	
Photographs	12,359	19,647	7,288	
Skins		4,721	4,721	
Stained glass	32,219	29,914		2,305
Statuary	14,352	13,740		612
Wall paper	1,350	3,389	2,039	
All other articles	97,542	66,785		30,757
Total	735,400	715,096		20,304

From the foregoing it will be seen that the largest gain was in paintings, beer, artificial flowers, metal paper, metal goods, and photographs; thus, with the exception of beer, all the increase was in works of art. The greatest decrease was in leather gloves, the export of which to the United States is decreasing yearly, owing to the successful competition of the American manufacturers.

AMERICAN TRADE IN MUNICH.

With regard to American products, but little progress seems to have been made by American manufacturers in selling goods, with the exception perhaps of shoes, office furniture, agricultural machinery, and tools. The two latter articles find great favor here owing to their ingenuity, utility, and good make and finish.

WILLIAM F. WRIGHT, *Consul-General*.

MUNICH, GERMANY, *October 7, 1904.*

MINER'S CONSUMPTION IN ENGLAND.

(From United States Consul Halstead, Birmingham, England.)

The Council of the Institution of Mining and Metallurgy has issued a memorandum to the members of the institution calling attention to the serious nature of the statistics of miner's phthisis, urging the immediate adoption of effective methods of prevention, and requesting the collection of further information as to the prevalence of the disease and the conditions which give rise to it. The opinion is that the main cause of the disease is the breathing of air containing dust. The air in mines must, therefore, be kept free from dust, if possible, and certainly work must not be performed immediately after blasting, etc., while dust is temporarily in the air. It is recommended that in drilling, water should be used in such a way that no dust shall escape into the air, whether the hole be bored upward or downward; that dust after blasting should be drowned by water, removed by ventilation, or allowed to subside before the men return, and that "broken rock" should, if possible, be damped before removal.

The council is asking the cooperation of technical societies in the collection of information on the following points: (1) Frequency or infrequency of the disease in connection with different kinds of mining work and different varieties of rock; (2) nature and amount of the stone dust present in the air in different varieties of mining work; (3) nature, amount, and effects on miners of the gaseous impurities met with in the air of metalliferous mines—in particular, poisonous impurities arising from blasting, etc.; (4) means in actual use for preventing the formation and inhalation of dust or poisonous gases; (5) evidence as to efficacy and practicability, or otherwise, of these means.

Perhaps I may properly suggest to American mining engineering organizations that they might do good service by cooperating with the British Institution of Mining and Metallurgy in both collection and distribution of facts touching this important subject.

MARSHAL HALSTEAD, *Consul*.

BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND, *October 15, 1904.*

PALM KERNELS IN LIBERIA.

(*From United States Chargé d'Affaires Ellis, Monrovia, Liberia.*)

The quantity and value of palm kernels exported from Liberia in the last quarter of 1903 are shown in the following table:

Quantity and value of palm kernels exported from Liberia in the quarter year ended December 31 1903.

Ports.	Quantity.			Value.		
	England.	Germany.	Total.	England.	Germany.	Total.
	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>			
Monrovia.....	607	715	1,322	\$582	\$686	\$1,268
Grand Bassa.....	2,280	3,291	5,571	2,554	3,228	5,782
Sinoe.....	534	2,530	3,064	534	2,529	3,063
Maryland.....	1,339	4,396	5,735	1,346	4,467	5,813
Cape Mount.....	826	4,506	5,332	826	4,506	5,332
Marshall.....		344	344		344	344
Total.....	5,586	15,782	21,368	5,842	15,760	21,602

Palm kernels, which are the product of the palm-oil tree, are very important in the life and trade of the native African. They have a varied utility, but are principally used for making an oil called nut oil and a sort of butter called palm butter. Abroad they are used for the manufacture of soap, candles, and artificial butter.

The finest groves of oil palms are found in Liberia at Cape Palmas, where for miles the graceful trees wave their branches. The decline of Liberian coffee has caused some farmers to consider the palm as a possible staple upon which to bestow their future labors.

GEORGE W. ELLIS, Jr., *Chargé d'Affaires*.

MONROVIA, LIBERIA, *October 15, 1904.*

BRITISH RAILWAYS IN 1903.

(*From United States Consul-General Evans, London, England.*)

The net receipts of the railways of the United Kingdom were greater in 1903 than in any of the preceding fifteen years, amounting to \$211,634,295, and this notwithstanding the fact that the working expenses for the year were also higher than during the years named.

The lines in England and Wales were, in proportion to the gross receipts, the most costly to work, and Scottish lines the most economical. The ratio of expenditure to gross receipts in 1889 and 1903 were as follows: English lines, 52 and 63 per cent; Scottish lines, 49 and 55 per cent; Irish lines, 54 and 61 per cent.

The increase in the paid-up capital of the combined railways in 1903 amounted to nearly \$150,000,000, practically the whole of which was required by the lines in England and Wales. The gross receipts of all lines increased by \$7,000,000, nearly the whole of which was earned by the English and Welsh lines, whose length of lines open increased over 1902 by 141 miles, Scotch by 84, and Irish by 56, the total increase being 281 miles. The number of passengers carried again increased, totaling for the United Kingdom 1,195,265,195, exclusive of season-ticket holders, compared with 775,183,073 in 1889.

TRAMWAYS.

The growth of tramways in the United Kingdom in the fifteen years from 1889 to 1903 has been remarkable, as the following statement will prove:

Statistics of tramways in the United Kingdom in 1889 and 1903.

	1889.	1903.
Miles of line open.....	949	1,772
Total paid-up capital.....	\$67,784,815	\$200,885,485
Number of passengers conveyed.....	477,596,268	1,681,948,655
Gross receipts.....	\$14,901,120	\$40,450,210
Working expenses.....	\$11,333,405	\$27,556,295
Net receipts.....	\$3,567,715	\$12,893,915

The use of electrical power is being generally adopted on these lines. Those in London which have been taken over by the London County council have been laid on the conduit or underground supply system; but the overhead wire obtains elsewhere as a general rule.

The length of tramway lines open in the United Kingdom at the close of 1902 and 1903 was as follows:

Number of miles of tramway open in the United Kingdom in 1902 and 1903.

Divisions.	1902.	1903.	Increase.
	<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Miles.</i>
England and Wales.....	1,187	1,454	267
Scotland.....	134	155	21
Ireland.....	163	163	
Total.....	1,484	1,772	288

H. CLAY EVANS, *Consul-General.*

LONDON, ENGLAND, *October 11, 1904.*

DIAMOND INDUSTRY OF AMSTERDAM.

Under date of October 20, 1904, United States Consul Frank D. Hill, Amsterdam, Netherlands, transmits the following report on the diamond industry of Amsterdam, prepared by Mr. Louis Tas, "whose name is known to the diamond world on both sides of the ocean."

The year 1904 began under very unfavorable conditions. The diamond strike, which began the 17th of February, lasted until June 17, and caused a scarcity of goods such as this market had never known, prospective buyers having been turned away empty handed.

The strike had as its object a nine-hour working schedule, which the workmen demanded, and the denial to the manufacturers of additional apprentices, excluding even their sons from the privilege of learning the diamond trade, from a practical standpoint. The strike was settled on the following conditions: Nine and one-half hours' work until January 1, 1905, and nine hours thereafter; an increase in wages of 10 per cent, and permission for the employment of 650 apprentices during the next five years—150 for the manufacturers, in the employment of their sons or relatives, and 500 for union workmen in the employment of their sons or relatives.

It was generally thought that once the strike was settled all demands could be met and conditions in general would right themselves. Such is not the case, however, for the difficulties which manufacturers experience to-day are greater than before the strike. The independence and scarcity of good workmen have brought about a greater increase of wages already than had been stipulated, and in addition to this must be added the extra increase which will be allotted to the workmen on January 1, 1905. This state of affairs was largely brought about by the extraordinary demand for diamonds, which comes not only from the United States, but from all European countries.

It was supposed that the present conflict between Russia and Japan would check the demand from European countries, but it can be safely stated that not only is Russia not being missed, but that the demand from other sources can not be satisfied. The position of the manufacturer to-day is not an enviable one, since he is not master of his own affairs, but has to consult the wishes of his workmen, whose actions, whatever they may be, he does not dare to question or dispute, lest they may stop work entirely and join others. The desire on the part of the manufacturer to fill orders goes so far that he voluntarily raises the wages of his employees before some competitor has a chance to increase his working staff by taking away the help of the former by offering the workmen all sorts of inducements. From various sources complaints are heard that these fears are well founded, and I can cite a case in which a number of workmen have received propositions to quit their present positions with a promise of an increase in wages amounting to fully 25 per cent and a contract under which they were to receive these wages every week for the next two years, whether they had constant work or not.

The importers from the United States, as well as those from other countries, must in their turn adapt themselves to existing conditions, and order their goods ahead on the best terms obtainable, as it is no longer a question of paying an additional per cent, but to get the goods at

any cost. The market is very bare of diamonds as a general rule and they find ready sale long before they are finished. How the problem will work out in the end can only be guessed now. The ever-growing demand for the raw material and the fact that the De Beers Company intends to bring about a consolidation of outside interests in mines like the Premier, or at least a regulation of prices to conform with its own, can only have in view a further series of increased prices—the first of which has just been declared. It is an acknowledged fact that the De Beers diamond mines do not yield the percentage of rough diamonds which they yielded in former years. While the aggregate of their entire output in previous years was estimated at £5,000,000 (\$24,332,500), and the output from outside mines at between £1,500,000 to £2,000,000 (\$7,299,750 to \$9,733,000), this year's output, in spite of the increase in price that has taken place during the last twelve months, will barely reach these figures, which in itself shows a decrease of production.

CENTER OF THE SHERRY TRADE.

(From United States Commercial Agent Price, Jeres de la Frontera, Spain.)

Jeres de la Frontera has a population of 65,000 and is the center of the sherry wine making trade. There are many rich people here, worth from \$500,000 to \$5,000,000. The city has hundreds of very old and large storehouses, containing, it is said, enough sherry wine to supply the world's demand for twenty-five years. There are fifty large firms here which ship wine to more than two hundred importers in the United States. Last year there was sent to the United States over 500,000 gallons of sherry ranging in value from \$100 to \$3,000 for each shipment and amounting to a total value of \$500,000.

All the money transactions of this business are through London banks. There is not a bank in Jeres that will buy or sell a draft on the United States. A branch of the Bank of Spain and two private banks do business here, but it is impossible to sell a draft on the United States Treasury. This is an anomalous condition not to be found elsewhere and offers a splendid opening for a discount and exchange bank, and bankers in the United States ought to know it. In New York \$100 in gold buys a draft on Spain for 550 silver pesetas, but in Cadiz it requires 735 silver pesetas to buy \$100 on New York, a difference of 185 pesetas for exchange, or over \$26 difference in \$100.

There are no wholesale depots here for any kind of goods or manufactures, nor factories making wagons, carriages, or other vehicles. A refrigerator can not be bought in this city. There are no factories for furniture nor for any kind of hardware. An office desk or a revolving chair can not be found at any store. Only a very few of the many and valuable patent medicines for sale in the United States can be found here in any of the drug stores.

M. M. PRICE, *Commercial Agent.*

JERES DE LA FRONTERA, SPAIN, *October 7, 1904.*

AGRICULTURAL DISTRESS IN SWEDEN.

(From United States Consul Bergh, Gothenburg, Sweden.)

The crops have been very small in certain counties. In parts of the counties of Gothenburg and Bohus the ground was so dry that grain and root-crop seeds did not start to grow until after the rains in August, resulting in great loss to the farmers. A relief fund has therefore been subscribed. The agricultural society of this county has granted a sum of 60,000 kroner (\$16,080). By private subscription in this city about \$13,400 has been raised, and the Government has granted \$13,400 to be used for relief in the county of Elfsborg.

These relief funds are to be used for the purchase of fodder this winter, so that farmers and crofters may be able to procure fodder at reasonable prices and thus keep their live stock till next summer. Some of the money will be used for the purchase of seeding grain, to be distributed the same way next spring. But the effects of the drought will be felt, and are already felt, by others than the farmers. The local supply of agricultural produce is much smaller than usual, which tends to make living expenses here still higher, a great disadvantage to all who have small incomes.

ROBERT A. S. BERGH, *Consul*.

Gothenburg, Sweden, *October 19, 1904.*

TELEPHONES AT VILLAGE POST-OFFICES.

United States Consul Liefeld, at Freiburg, Germany, sends the following account, clipped from the London Daily Mail of October 5, 1904, of an experiment by the British post-office department pertaining to village telephones:

An important experiment, which may have far-reaching results, is being made by the telegraph department of the general post-office in half a dozen villages. The object is to ascertain if it is practicable to make village post-offices serve the purpose of public telephone call offices. If successful the result will be the removal of one of the disabilities attaching to life in villages.

For the past six years, although the fact is not generally known, it has been the practice to use the telephone, which officially is a telegraph instrument, to transmit telegraph messages from town centers to small village post-offices. The installation of a telephone wire is cheaper than the telegraph installation, and the messages can be sent more expeditiously than by the needle instrument or the A B C code, the methods generally used in village post-offices. The messages are written out and stamped by the sender and are sent over the wire by the clerk.

In the selected villages it is now possible for any member of the public to ring up a subscriber and use these post-office telephones in

the ordinary manner at the ordinary rates. Should the person with whom communication is desired not be on the telephone line the sender can telephone his message to the nearest post-office and have it sent on by express messenger. In the case of long messages the saving in expense, as compared with sending the same message at telegraph rates, will be very considerable. Similarly, the town dweller will be able to communicate with the villager.

The point to be decided is whether this new arrangement meets a real public want.

POPULATION OF THE TRANSVAAL.

(From United States Consul Proffit, Pretoria, Transvaal.)

A census was completed on the night of the 17th of April last showing the population of the Transvaal to be as follows: Whites, 299,327; aboriginal natives, 945,498; colored, other than natives, 23,891; total, 1,268,716.

The census of Swazieland was taken at the same time, showing the following result: Whites, 898; aboriginal natives, 84,531; colored, other than natives, 55; total, 85,484.

The population of the Orange River Colony was as follows: Whites, 143,419; colored, 241,626; total, 385,045.

MUNICIPALITIES.

The most populous centers are the Rand (Johannesburg and suburbs) and Pretoria, showing populations as follows:

The Rand (including Johannesburg, Boksburg, Germiston, and Krugersdorp), 260,388 persons, of whom 115,499 were white subjects, 1,171 officers and soldiers, 129,361 colored aboriginals, and 14,357 colored, other than natives.

In Pretoria and suburbs there were (including Pretoria district) 164,468 persons, of whom 43,551 were whites, 74,710 aboriginal natives, and 46,207 colored, other than natives.

The white population of the principal towns was as follows: Barberton, 1,205; Ermelo, 767; Heidelberg, 1,838; Krugersdorp, 5,686; Lydenberg, 778; Middleburg, 2,395; Klerksdorp, 2,201; Potchefstroom, 6,021; Standerton, 2,015; Volksrust, 1,342; Pietersburg, 1,637.

The white population of the principal towns of the Orange River Colony is as follows: Bloemfontein, 11,429; Bethlehem, 1,023; Jagersfontein, 1,294; Koffyfontein, 1,329; Ficksburg, 1,011; Harrismith, 4,366; Kroonstadt, 3,723; Ladybrand, 2,333; Parys, 1,278; Winburg, 1,105.

JOSEPH E. PROFFIT, *Consul.*

PRETORIA, TRANSVAAL, *September 30, 1904.*

SOUTH AFRICAN PINEAPPLES FOR EUROPEAN MARKETS.

(From United States Consul Proffit, Pretoria, Transvaal.)

The current number of the British and South African Export Gazette contains an interesting article relative to the new method of packing pineapples for shipment from South Africa to England and the Continent. The article, in part, is as follows:

Last month there appeared in these columns an interesting article on colonial imports of perishable foodstuffs, an article which has brought a number of inquiries as to why the splendid refrigerating facilities provided on the South African liners should not render practicable the development of a big return trade in those fruits which are grown and sold so cheaply all over South Africa, many tons of which are allowed to rot every year for lack of a market. The answer is that the prices obtained in Europe, except for the choicer fruits, will not cover cold-chamber freights, though a profit might easily be assured if the fruit could come over as ordinary cargo. Recognizing this latter fact, one enterprising London firm, Messrs. Cockbain, Hemelryk & Co., have been experimenting with Cape and Natal pineapples packed in peat dust, and after several failures they appear to have achieved success at last. Their experiments have proved the necessity of picking the fruit when it has passed its greenest stage, and of packing it in peat of special quality and freed from earth.

The secret of success lies in the cooling and absorbent properties of the peat, which render it impossible for moisture to gather on the skin of the fruit, and so set up mold or rot.

JOSEPH E. PROFFIT, *Consul.*

PRETORIA, TRANSVAAL, *October 5, 1904.*

INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS IN CHIHUAHUA, MEXICO.

(From United States Consul Mills, Chihuahua, Mexico.)

After passing through a year of drought, which has been exceedingly hard on cattle ranchmen and farmers, the whole State of Chihuahua has been favored with copious rains for the past month, which insures a prosperous season next year. Grass is now abundant and winter wheat will do well. Many mines which have been closed down for months on account of scarcity of water have resumed operations and all lines of business show renewed activity.

Local capitalists are planning to build a large custom smelter in this district, and an expert is now gathering data to determine the most favorable point for its location. The completion of such a project will enable many low-grade mines to be operated which now lie idle or undeveloped on account of the high treatment charges made by the trust smelters.

The Chihuahua and Pacific Railroad is extending its line from a point near its present terminus at Miñaca, in a northerly direction, through the rich and fertile Guerrero Valley to the town of Temosachic, near the great timber tracts of western Chihuahua. These timber lands are practically limitless. Large fortunes will no doubt be made from these lands, which now sell for a few dollars per acre.

The Kansas City, Mexico and Orient Railroad has suspended operations in this State for the present.

There is a project on foot to change the present street railway here, now operated by mule power, to an electric system.

The following report, dated October 3, 1904, is from Consular Agent James J. Long at Parral, an important mining center in this consular district:

During the past year the production of gold and silver ores in this district has slowly but steadily increased. Several new mines have been opened which promise to be large producers, and a number of new companies have been formed to open old mines that have not been worked for a number of years. Therefore I look for a fair increase during the coming year. During the last few months the export of ores to the United States has fallen off, which is due to the fact that a large percentage of the ore is now treated by smelters operating in the Republic.

There is a project on hand now to build a wagon road from the end of the Parral and Durango Railroad to the Guadalupe y Calvo district. If this is carried out it will open a district almost virgin, and will probably lead to a large development in this section of the Sierra Madre Mountains.

W. W. MILLS, *Consul.*

CHIHUAHUA, MEXICO, *October 9, 1904.*

PIASSAVA IN LIBERIA.

(*From United States Chargé d'Affaires Ellis, Monrovia, Liberia.*)

During the December quarter of 1903, 2,602,057 pounds of piassava were exported to England and Germany, in return for which Liberia received \$72,447. Of the total number of pounds exported England bought 35.6 per cent and Germany 64.4 per cent. Liberia received \$15,157.26 from these countries for coffee in the same months. Of both commodities Germany bought to the value of \$30,333.42 more than England. While coffee is commonly regarded as being the chief article of Liberian export, for this quarter it brought \$57,289.72 less than piassava. The low price of coffee has caused many farmers to turn their attention to other products, and piassava bids fair to be to Liberia what coffee was.

Piassava is a fiber made from the bamboo tree and is used in Europe to make brooms, brushes, and the like. In Liberia the bamboo is taken from the tree and placed in water until the outer covering decays. It

is then beaten in a forked stick, erected for the purpose, until there remains only the fiber, which is weighed and bound in bundles much like American wheat, except that it is bound at both ends. This is the best method of obtaining the bamboo fiber. The other method, beating the bamboo dry, breaks many of the strands and produces an inferior fiber.

The following table, from the reports of Minister Johnson, shows the quantity and value of the piassava exported during the last quarter of 1903 by ports and destination:

Quantity and value of piassava exported from Liberia in the quarter year ended December 31, 1903.

Ports.	Quantity.			Value.		
	England.	Germany.	Total.	England.	Germany.	Total.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>			
Monrovia.....	118,997	411,036	530,033	\$4,192	\$11,475	\$15,667
Grand Bassa.....	500,391	310,394	810,785	14,096	8,643	22,739
Sinoe.....	146,035	363,977	510,012	4,407	9,408	13,815
Maryland.....	57,528	153,151	220,679	1,701	4,373	6,074
Cape Mount.....	78,293	204,529	282,822	2,439	6,136	8,575
Marshall.....	28,000	229,726	257,726	846	4,731	5,577
Total.....	929,244	1,672,813	2,602,057	27,681	44,766	72,447

GEORGE W. ELLIS, Jr., *Chargé d'Affaires.*

MONROVIA, LIBERIA, *October 15, 1904.*

ASPARAGUS FRESHENED IN WATER.

(From United States Vice and Deputy Consul-General Murphy, Frankfort, Germany.)

A warm discussion has been going on for many years in Germany as to whether purchasers suffer from the dealers' practice of submerging asparagus in water to prevent its withering or hardening. The plea of the dealers has been that soaking asparagus in water merely keeps it fresh in appearance without either lessening its alimentary value or increasing its weight.

In order to put an end to this discussion the Gardeners' Union determined to submit the question to the experts of the Experimental Institute at Geisenheim on the Rhine. According to the *Frankfurter Zeitung* Doctors Windisch and Schmidt have completed the experiments with surprising results. It has been ascertained that the absorption of water by submerged asparagus is not inconsiderable, the weight being increased about 10 per cent in two days. Moreover it loses some of its nutritious components, especially those containing nitrogen and mineral matter.

The results of experiments with asparagus whose cut surfaces had been coated with paraffin were exceedingly interesting. Contrary to

expectations it was found that asparagus thus treated absorbed considerably more water and lost much less of its alimentary value than that which was placed in water without first being coated with paraffin where it had been cut.

Thus it has at last been authoritatively established that the practice of keeping asparagus fresh by placing it in water not only lessens its value as food but also defrauds the purchaser by increasing its weight.

GEORGE H. MURPHY, *Vice and Deputy Consul-General.*

FRANKFORT, GERMANY, *October 10, 1904.*

SILK PRODUCTION IN 1903.

(*From United States Vice and Deputy Consul-General Murphy, Frankfort, Germany.*)

According to a German authority, the world's silk production in 1903 amounted to 39,897,000 avoirdupois pounds, not including what was produced and consumed in the home markets of China and Japan. By countries the production was as follows:

Silk production, by countries, in 1903.

Country.	Pounds.	Country.	Pounds.
Italy	7,757,000	The Caucasus.....	880,000
France	1,043,000	Bulgaria, Servia, and Roumania.....	299,000
Austria	606,000	Turkey in Europe	546,000
Spain	189,000	Turkey in Asia and Cyprus	2,990,000
Greece and Crete.....	182,000		

The following amounts were exported from Asiatic countries whose entire production it is difficult or impossible to estimate:

Exports of silk from Asiatic countries in 1903.

Country.	Pounds.	Country.	Pounds.
Persia and Turkestan.....	1,430,000	Japan, via Yokohama.....	10,188,000
China, via Shanghai and Canton.....	14,016,000	India, via Calcutta.....	589,000

It appears that in recent years the production of silk has increased chiefly in Asiatic countries.

GEORGE H. MURPHY, *Vice and Deputy Consul-General.*

FRANKFORT, GERMANY, *October 18, 1904.*

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

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DAILY CONSULAR REPORTS

DECEMBER 8, 1904

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STEAMSHIP RATE WAR.

(From United States Consul-General Evans, London, England.)

The financial and commercial supplement of the London Times, October 24, 1904, contained the following on the latest phases of the rate war between the trans-Atlantic steamship lines:

Despite persistent rumors to the contrary, the upsetting influences operating in the North Atlantic passenger trade still continue. Nor is there at present any prospect of a speedy conclusion to a war which must be making itself severely felt by several of the lines engaged in the conflict. Excepting, of course, that a struggle which must terminate some time or other is nearer its termination than it was some months back, there is less prospect of an immediate settlement than ever, for the simple reason that the slack season has now been reached, and if questions of principle determine the lines to rate cutting when ships were full and emigration in full swing, they are hardly likely to be less operative now that the prospective loss per voyage is less.

Before discussing the present methods of campaign and the prospects of peace, it will be interesting to consider the effect which low rates have had both upon emigration from Europe westward to America, and also the eastward-bound volume of trans-Atlantic travel. The present rate war has served to impress upon the general public a fact hitherto unrecognized, namely, that the volume of emigration is not materially affected by the rate question. Thus, up to the close of September of the current year the number of passengers of all classes landed at United States ports were as follows, the same table showing the numbers carried for the corresponding period of nine months last year:

Number of passengers landed at United States ports in the first nine months of 1903 and 1904.

Kind.	1903.	1904.	Increase or decrease in 1904.
First cabin	57,385	55,949	- 1,536
Second cabin	93,472	96,700	+ 3,228
Third class	704,058	553,251	-150,807

Thus, while first and second cabin travel increased by less than 1,700, the volume of third-class passengers fell off by no less than 150,807, a very serious diminution indeed, especially when it is remembered that, instead of paying £6 [\$29.20] or £5 10s. [\$26.77] for his ocean transport, the steerage voyager could procure it during the season of the year when ocean travel is most pleasurable for practically one-third of the sums mentioned. The low rate, however, induced an increased volume of eastward travel. The first and second class travel to Europe was 1,062 more, while the third class increased by 113,284, the low rate which would not induce Europeans to leave their homes proving a potent

attraction to workers domiciled in America to revisit the scenes of their youth. Doubtless, if the number of these who returned to the States or Canada after their holiday could be accurately ascertained, it would be found that the volume of bona fide westward emigration traffic would be materially diminished. There is little of practical value to be gained from the analysis of these figures, but incidentally it may be mentioned that the crack boats of the German lines appear to be the most popular with the cabin passengers, while it is also demonstrated that the third-class accommodation of the Cunard ships has been taxed to its utmost capacity.

* * * * *

The broad fact remains that the question which arbitration failed to settle is still unsolved, and that the two great factors in the fight—the German steamship lines and the Cunard Company—are still at daggers drawn, the main point in dispute being the adhesion of the Cunard to their Hungarian business. This is the crux of the whole question, and the rate cutting indulged in by the Atlantic combine and other lines at the behest of their German allies was in the nature of a flank skirmish rather than the main conflict. Apparently the methods of the German lines to subdue the British company have been ineffectual, and that despite the greater restrictions of the control stations, the enforcement of which has aroused the bitter hostility of a section of the German press. It will be remembered that the price of a Cunard ticket from Trieste or Fiume to New York is £7 10s. [\$36.50], and the rate being a remunerative one, it latterly suggested itself to the German lines that here was a vulnerable spot in the armor of their opponents, and the method adopted to wound the foe was the prepaid ticket, a species of machinery by which the better-to-do dweller in the United States invites his friend to join him by forwarding him a prepaid passage ticket. These prepaid rates were accordingly cut during the last week of September, and thus a Hungarian or Croatian passenger who holds a prepaid ticket by the vessels of the Hamburg-American Company can travel to New York for \$10 by any of their steamers except the *Deutschland*. The North-German Lloyd have similarly cut their rate, so that it now stands at \$10 to \$15. The prepaid rate by the Holland-American Line is \$12. It is interesting to note that this cut does not apply to Austrians, who are charged per prepaid ticket by these lines the average price of \$25.50, or, say, double what the Hungarian prepaid ticket costs. It is well known that a large section of the Austrian population of the Austro-Hungarian Empire are intensely German in their sympathies, but whether they will accept with equanimity a plan of campaign which cheapens ocean travel by 50 per cent to their Hungarian fellow-citizens remains to be seen.

Of course the prepaid ticket by the German vessel is a passport through German territory to the seaboard, and that in spite of control stations.

This cut in prepaid tickets is the latest effort of the German lines to drive the Cunard Company from the Adriatic. But it is a costly game to play, especially as the Hungarian Government is determined to abide by the terms of the Cunard Company's contract. The German machinery includes control stations, and it is probable that similar institutions under the control of the Hungarian authorities may be created to prevent Hungarian emigrants from proceeding to New York by any other route than that of Trieste or Fiume. As a last step the

German companies have increased their third-class rate from the Continent to New York to £7 [\$34.07] and £7 10s. [\$36.50]. This does not imply that the companies sailing from British ports will follow suit. It is hardly likely that the Cunard Steamship Company will alter their rates, for the simple reason that their policy is to draw continental passengers from the German lines, and as their rates remain at £3 [\$14.60] and £2 15s. [\$13.38], they naturally determine those which the other lines sailing from British ports will levy. Even supposing that the Atlantic combine lines desire to raise their rates, the question would then come in: Could the German lines allow their allies to raise the prices of third-class traffic above that of the Cunard Line? In other words, so long as the German lines and the Cunard Line are in antagonism, the former are likely to deem it necessary that their allies shall fight the British company at home while they conduct the campaign on the Continent.

H. CLAY EVANS, *Consul-General.*

LONDON, ENGLAND, *October 25, 1904.*

TRADE WITH JAMAICA.

(*From United States Vice-Consul Orrett, Kingston, Jamaica.*)

INCREASED IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

It is satisfactory to note that during the year ended March 31, 1904, there has been a very appreciable increase in the imports of flour and meal; but this is no doubt due, to some extent, to the fact that the crops in most of the agricultural districts were destroyed by the hurricane of August, 1903; and the same remark also applies, and with additional force, to the increase of the imports of lumber and nails, for building purposes, as the storm ravaged with terrific destruction the houses of the planters, large and small, necessitating, in many instances, the entire rebuilding of their homes. Imports of bacon, hams, and salt beef, as well as canned meats, show substantial increases. The methods of curing and packing are very satisfactory. There is little new to be said of cheese and butter. If anything, the quality is better than it has been. The method of packing is all that can be desired. The Canadians have of late, however, been trying to capture the butter market, and to some extent they have succeeded.

Formerly all the apples, pears, and peaches were imported from the United States, but of late one of the large English steamship companies trading to this island brings regular fortnightly supplies, its steamers being fitted with the necessary cold-storage apparatus for the purpose. If small refrigerating chambers were fitted on steamers coming direct from the United States there is no reason why this branch of trade should be lost to us. Efforts should be made to get steamers flying our flag to adopt this system of ventilation, and I see no reason why small refrigerating chambers could not be introduced

on board such vessels, as, independent of fruits, beef, mutton, and poultry could also be brought, with great market possibilities in the near future.

The imports of agricultural implements, furniture (both office and household), boots and shoes, electrical supplies, hardware generally, bolts, nails, etc., have increased during the past year, and there is no doubt that American manufacturers are slowly but surely getting a stronger foothold.

LOCAL PRESERVED FRUITS.

A large and well equipped factory, owned by a company registered in London with a capital of \$50,000, has been started in this city (Kingston) for the purpose of preparing tropical fruits, canned and in pulp, for the English and American markets, and bids fair to do a large and lucrative business. As a large proportion of their manufactures are sold locally the consumption of California canned fruits will, in time, be seriously affected, and as a matter of fact, to a small extent this has already taken place, but there is no reason, if the price of our fruits can be lowered, why this branch of trade should be lost to the United States. I have heard of no complaints made by consumers about the method of packing nor of the quality supplied.

HOW TO INCREASE AMERICAN TRADE.

This consulate loses no opportunity to further trade with the United States, and during the year 1904 has had considerable correspondence with American manufacturers, exporters, and various industrial associations. I am of opinion that reciprocity would be a material way in which to develop trade relations with Jamaica, each country making mutual concessions in present tariffs on those articles most likely to lead to increased consumption. Another means that has occurred to me, and one that has already formed the subject of a dispatch to the Department, would be to have the principal chambers of commerce in the United States combine and send a delegation of members to open a temporary exhibition of their goods in Kingston. Such a union would undoubtedly collect a fund of industrial and trade information, besides forming new markets for the exports of the United States, and would effect more permanent good than even commercial travelers, as the latter represent only particular industries, while such a combination as I have proposed would represent the manufacturing interests of the country, and I feel sure would, by its influence, largely increase the commercial relations between the two countries.

WILLIAM H. ORRETT, *Vice-Consul*.

KINGSTON, JAMAICA, *October 24, 1904.*

PUBLIC UTILITIES IN HULL, ENGLAND.

(From United States Consul Hamm, Hull, England.)

The construction of a municipal telephone system in Hull has brought about a speedy reduction in rates. At a recent meeting of the corporation telephone committee it was announced that the charge for unlimited service over an exclusive line would be £5 (\$24.33) per annum to private houses and £6 6s. (\$30.65) to business premises. This reduction has been followed by a large increase in the number of subscribers. The National Telephone Company has been compelled to reduce its rates for unlimited service, so far as regards private houses, from £10 (\$48.66) to half that amount. To what extent this reduction will affect the company in other towns and cities is a matter of interest. It is stated that in the agreements which the National Telephone Company has with practically all the large towns and cities in England, and by which the corporations of those towns granted the company underground way leaves, it was made a condition that in case they reduced their unlimited-service rate in any place below \$48.66, a similar reduction must be made, if demanded, in all other towns. If this is the case, then other cities can now demand the same telephone rate as is made in Hull. Thus the competition in this city may prove beneficial to every city in England.

A recent report of the comptroller of accounts of the Hull corporation throws some light on the position of other corporation enterprises and the success attending their municipalization. On account of the crematory \$530.44 was expended on the maintenance account and \$306.58 was received for the year ended April 1, so there was an excess of expenditure of \$223.86 in this case. On the public baths during the same time there was an excess of expenditure of \$1,110.53. In the gas department the profit shown on the year was \$15,380, from which there is to be deducted interest on the debit balance and the sinking-fund installment, leaving a net credit balance on the revenue account of \$2,637. The working profit of the waterworks was \$149,893; deducting \$12,652, city fund annuity; \$57,449, interest on loans, and \$8,622, sinking-fund installments, leaves the net profits \$71,162. The revenue account of the electric lighting shows a working profit of \$88,696, from which there are to be deductions for interest on loans, sinking fund, and meter installments, leaving the net profit \$7,976. The working profit on account of the street cars for the year was \$185,238, from which \$48,329 is to be deducted for interest on loans and \$45,700 for sinking-fund installments, and \$37,400 to be transferred to the reserve fund, making the credit balance for this year \$57,500.

In each instance, then, with the exception of the crematory and the baths, the municipalization of public utilities in Hull has resulted in a

profit to the city treasury. The profit, it is true, is small, but it must be remembered that the charges for these public services are extremely low. A ride on the street cars in any direction to the end of the line costs only 2 cents; an exclusive telephone service in a private house costs less than \$25 a year, and in a business office about \$30 a year. Gas is sold at 48 cents per thousand feet and electricity at 9 cents per unit. The object is not so much to make a profit for the city out of these utilities as to furnish the public with the best service at the lowest possible price. Viewed in this light, municipalization in Hull can be pronounced a success.

WALTER C. HAMM, *Consul*.

HULL, ENGLAND, *October 31, 1904.*

RUBBER IN THE MALAY PENINSULA.

(From *United States Consul-General Williams, Singapore, Straits Settlements.*)

The Straits Times of September 21, 1904, contained the following on the cultivation of rubber in the Federated Malay States:

M. Octave J. A. Collet, a well-known rubber expert, has brought out a work on rubber cultivation in the Far East, the Hevea kind being particularly dealt with. A review of the book in the Ceylon Observer shows that M. Collet was struck with the rapid growth of the Hevea in Selangor. Indeed, the rapid growth of Para rubber trees in the Malay Peninsula, as compared with other places and Amazonia especially, receives some attention from M. Collet. Measured a meter (meter=39.37 inches) from the ground, the average girth of 4-year-old trees in Ceylon is given at 38 to 40 centimeters (centimeter=0.3937 inch), those of the Malay Peninsula average 40 to 45 centimeters at 3 to 3½ years of age, and at 5 years from 52 to 60 centimeters, while the trees in Amazonia according to M. Cibot (quoted) do not attain a diameter of 20 centimeters (i. e., girth of about 60) in less than fifteen years. Thus he says the growth in the Malay Peninsula is about twice as rapid as in Amazonia, the native habitat of the Hevea.

Comparing the Amazon country and its output of rubber with Malaya, M. Collet, after giving various figures concerning Amazonia, says:

It is seen from these figures that the plantations in the Malay Peninsula have a number of trees equivalent to those which exist on six-fifteenths of the area actually exploited in the Amazons. But the closeness of the planting in the peninsula, covering 7,000 hectares (hectare=2.471 acres) against 750,000 in Amazonia; the immediate proximity of railway and sea, which place the most distant plantation but some hours from the ports of embarkation, instead of the enormous distances and difficulties of access of the forest concessions of the Amazon; the presence of laborers, Chinese or Tamil, capable of doing the work at a cheapness which few countries know; the extremely low export duties, which should almost come under the title of statistic duties, compared to the 15 per cent ad valorem of the Bolivian cus-

toms or the 22 or 23 per cent of Brazil—are most important factors in favor of Hevea cultivation, the produce of which has already proved its value by obtaining such very high prices, far exceeding those of Para in the averages of the European markets. These economic conditions, so eminently favorable and perhaps unequaled, have encouraged the putting under cultivation numerous plantations, of which some were already in tea, as in the case of Ceylon, or in Liberian coffee in the Malay Peninsula.

O. F. WILLIAMS, *Consul-General.*

SINGAPORE, STRAITS SETTLEMENTS, *September 21, 1904.*

CANADIAN TRADE.

(*From United States Consul Culver, London, Ontario, Canada.*)

The continued trade expansion of the Dominion of Canada is due to a succession of good crops, favorable seasons throughout the entire country, and the development of the Northwest Territories. The settlement of the North and Northwest increases largely the demand upon the manufacturers of the East, and manufacturing establishments are multiplying. Their output is increasing in volume, and labor is actively employed. Added to this are an increased foreign demand for Canadian raw products and increased facilities for safer and speedier transportation. Should no reverses occur through unfavorable seasons curtailing farm production, thus impeding the settlement of the Territories, the outlook for continued prosperity in the Dominion for years to come is more than favorable.

The settlement of the Northwest is the prime factor in the future augmentation of trade, and, judging from the homestead entries made during the calendar years 1902 and 1903, we may fairly anticipate a more rapid settlement in the future. Statistics for these two years show the number of entries and the nationality of the homesteaders from some of the principal countries to be as follows:

Number of homestead entries in the Northwest Territories, Canada, in 1902 and 1903.

Nationality.	1902.	1903.
Canadians	5,550	6,588
Persons who had previous entry	1,469	2,451
Canadians returned from the United States	737	777
Americans	8,061	10,302
English	1,649	3,632
Germans	543	934
Austro-Hungarians	1,987	2,806
Dokhobors (Russians)	207	2,284
All other	2,012	2,909
Total	22,215	32,682

This influx of immigration, which represented 64,968 persons in 1902 and 90,455 persons in 1903, into the vast productive regions of

the Northwest, and a new transcontinental railway in process of construction which will reach the very heart of the Territories, open up trade possibilities of mammoth proportions. With friendly trade relations existing between the two countries the United States may reasonably hope to be the greatest beneficiary outside of the Dominion itself.

Such relations as induce American capital to establish branch houses in the Dominion, where they are welcomed as a Canadian asset and manned by Canadian workmen, are not such relations as we should seek if we wish to profit largely by the future development of this country. Although the Canadian people are earnestly striving for commercial and industrial independence and the building up of a great and prosperous commonwealth, and by preferential arrangements with the mother country are seeking new markets for their surplus products, it is not too late for us to maintain our supremacy in this market and profit largely by future development.

HENRY S. CULVER, *Consul*.

LONDON, ONTARIO, CANADA, *November 5, 1904.*

FOREIGN TRADE AND TRAVEL IN AUSTRIA.

(*From United States Commercial Agent Twells, Carlsbad, Austria.*)

Exports of china and earthen ware and musical instruments from this district to the United States show small increases this year over 1903, but the season is not yet over and goods are still being sent to the United States for the Christmas market. The sale of hops will be much better than last year, when the crop was very small. As yet there is very little direct importing from the United States to this district, but in consequence of former reports, American dealers in farming implements and other lines of goods have written to this office, and both information and addresses of merchants in their line of business, with additional remarks, have been readily given.

Information obtained from bankers shows that the manner of collecting accounts for export goods is about the same in this country as in the United States. New firms, and in many cases old ones, can obtain goods from this district only when the goods destined for exportation are paid for on delivery at the port of leaving or before shipment. No credit is given, as a rule, to new firms, and goods for exportation are generally considered cash articles.

Imported goods for this district are divided into two general classes, and the methods of examining for customs dues differs for the classes. The first consists of passengers' effects, which are forwarded by the same conveyance as that in which the owner goes. Only travelers' luggage is forwarded in this way, and the examination is generally

a mere matter of form. The second class consists of goods arriving by fast or slow trains. After the consignee of such goods has obtained a freight bill from the railway company he, or some one in his behalf, must go to the custom-house and declare the quality or kind of goods by filling two forms. This requires much experience, for a wrong declaration is considered a fraud, and is punished as such. An officer very carefully examines the declarations and compares them with the goods. After the forms are officially entered and the duty paid the goods may be removed. Complaints against assessments are rare, as the duty is measured by weight or number, but never by the value of the goods. If there are doubtful cases, as, for instance, in silks, textile goods, etc., a complaint against a too high assessment and tax may be forwarded to the chief revenue office of the district.

In this consular district there is no water transportation, and the three ways of forwarding goods are by carrying them as personal luggage or shipping them by fast train (eilgut) or by slow train (frachtgut). To get luggage from Carlsbad to Prague or back (117 miles) takes, for instance, four and a half hours, accompanying the traveler, about forty-eight hours by fast train, and three to five days by slow train. It takes, as a rule, from eight to twelve hours to carry goods with the passenger from Carlsbad to Vienna (315 miles), but it requires at least five days by fast train and eight to twelve by slow train, and this is the customary way goods are forwarded. It generally takes a fortnight for our consular supplies to arrive from Hamburg.

When goods arrive by fast or slow train the addressee receives a notification from the railway company. By presenting it at the station and paying for freight, weighing, etc., he obtains the original freight note and may take the goods. To forward the notification to the receiver and from him to his freight agent, then to produce it at the railway and carry away the articles generally causes some delay, and the procedure makes the removing of goods somewhat complicated.

By the new system of passenger rates, which has now been in use some two years, about double the fare of the third class is charged for traveling in the second class of a slow passenger train, and about three times as much is charged for first-class carriage. About 50 per cent will be added if the train is a "fast or express train;" no reduction, or a very small one, is allowed for return tickets, and an increase is charged on "trains de luxe." Thus the fare to Vienna (315 miles from Carlsbad) amounts to 13.40 crowns (\$2.72) third class, 24.50 crowns (\$4.97) second class, and 40.90 crowns (\$8.30) first class for slow passenger trains; and 19.10 crowns (\$3.88) third class, 35.40 crowns (\$7.19) second class, and 57.30 crowns (\$11.63) first class for fast trains. Return tickets cost 34.40 crowns (\$6.98) third class, 65.80 crowns (\$13.36) second class, and 107.20 crowns (\$21.76) first class on all trains, as

nearly double is charged for the second class; merchants and middle-class people mostly travel now third class on fast trains. It is believed this will lead to a change in regard to the arrangements for second class, which is not well patronized now.

Since the law of February 25, 1902, adding some new regulations of importance to commercial travelers, a new law has been enacted. American commercial travelers are permitted to sell goods in Austria in the same way that the natives of the country are, but besides passports they must have travelers' certificates, which can be easily procured through consuls. In many lines salesmen are not permitted to solicit orders from private persons, but merchants and traders in nearly every kind of business may be called upon. An American may conduct business in Austria under the same conditions as an Austrian, provided he produces a certificate from a consul that Austrians enjoy the same privileges in the United States. It is, however, very difficult to get a concession in Austria for a so-called licensed trade, and licenses for chemists' shops, printing works, booksellers' shops, and some others can not be obtained at all.

JOHN S. TWELLS, *Commercial Agent.*

CARLSBAD, AUSTRIA, *October 27, 1904.*

GERMAN FORESTS.

(*From United States Vice and Deputy Consul-General Murphy, Frankfort, Germany.*)

Nearly one-fourth of the surface of the entire German Empire is covered with forests (about 48,000 square miles), more than one-sixth (38,000 square miles) being occupied by what the Germans call "hochwald," that is, forests of full-grown trees.

The area occupied by trees of the pine family is more than three times as great as that occupied by all the varieties of deciduous trees combined. Of the 5,658,000 acres of deciduous trees 1,172,000 acres are oak, 467,000 acres are birch, alder, and aspen, and 4,019,000 acres are beech, etc. Of the 18,495,000 acres of needle-leaved trees, 12,327,000 acres are pine, 29,000 acres are larch, 5,482,000 acres are red fir, and 657,000 acres are white fir.

About 2½ per cent of this "hochwald" is owned by the Crown, nearly 40 per cent by the State, 15 per cent by municipal governments, and about 40 per cent by private persons.

The entire area devoted to forests is to-day nearly 200,000 acres greater than it was twenty years ago. Between 1883 and 1900 the decrease in the area of forests of deciduous trees amounted to 567,000 acres, while the gain in the extent of the forests of pines, larches, and firs was 760,000 acres.

GEORGE H. MURPHY, *Vice and Deputy Consul-General.*

FRANKFORT, GERMANY, *October 12, 1904.*

TRADE OF LIBAU, RUSSIA.

(From United States Consular Agent Smit, Libau, Russia.)

Notwithstanding the war, the commerce of this port continues important. The best means for enlarging American trade, in my opinion, would be to have American firms send their representatives here. Compared with traders of other countries, Americans are at a disadvantage in the cost of transportation and are scarcely able to compete. Moreover, their goods are little known here. Longer credits should be given in order to meet those allowed by other nations.

Each traveler for American goods who seeks to acquaint the natives with the superior merits of his wares, or to learn the methods of business in this country, is required to have a passport to cross the frontier, and he must also be furnished with full credentials from his firm. New port regulations were promulgated about a year ago. Formerly the administration of the port was in the hands of the local government; at present the central Government is in immediate control of the custom-house.

Libau has a direct cable to Copenhagen, managed by the Northern Cable Company. Articles of commerce between this port and America are usually transshipped at Copenhagen, Hamburg, London, or Hull. American goods are taxed at entry 30 per cent higher than goods from other countries. There are large warehouses at this port, but importations are smaller than might be expected, because of the lack of railway facilities. A single line leads from Libau to the interior.

HUGO SMIT, *Consular Agent.*

LIBAU, RUSSIA, *October 26, 1904.*

CROP ACREAGE IN GERMANY.

(From United States Vice and Deputy Consul-General Murphy, Frankfort, Germany.)

The statistical report of the German Empire for the third quarter of 1904 contains the following estimates of the areas devoted to the principal crops.

The following crops show a decrease of area, as compared with the preceding year:

Crops in Germany showing decreased acreage cultivated in 1904 from acreage of 1903.

Crop.	Area cultivated in 1904.	Decrease.
	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Summer wheat.....	347,000	38.3
Summer rye.....	283,000	12
Summer barley.....	3,580,000	4.6
Oats.....	9,217,000	2.6
Meadows.....	13,084,000	.06

The following crops show an increase of area, as compared with the preceding year:

Crops in Germany showing increased acreage cultivated in 1904 from acreage of 1903.

Crop.	Area cultivated in 1904.	Decrease.
	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Winter wheat.....	8,872,000	13
Winter rye.....	13,135,000	1.6
Potatoes.....	7,233,000	1.1
Lucern.....	501,000	.8
Winter rape seed.....	174,000	5.1
Hops.....	83,000	3.3
Grapevines.....	264,000	.8

The area devoted to winter spelt, including spelt mixed with wheat and rye, is 750,000 acres; that devoted to clover, including clover mixed with grasses, is 4,475,000 acres.

GEORGE H. MURPHY, *Vice and Deputy Consul-General.*

FRANKFORT, GERMANY, *October 11, 1904.*

COOL-CURED CHEESE IN CANADA.

(From United States Consul Burke, St. Thomas, Canada.)

An item of possible interest to American cheese makers appeared in the Toronto Globe of October 26.

Several lots of cheese from the government cool-curing rooms were recently consigned to merchants in Great Britain, with a view of getting a report on the quality of the cool-cured cheese as compared with others of the same batch cured at ordinary temperature. The merchants who received the cheese had it examined by members of the trade in their various localities. The report made by a committee who examined one lot was as follows:

(1) Cool curing during the summer months is a decided improvement over the ordinary method, and improves the quality of the cheese not less than 2 shillings (48 cents), and in some cases 4 shillings (97 cents, per hundredweight (112 pounds).

(2) Paraffining is an improvement when thoroughly applied on well-made, close-textured cheese, but does harm on soft, mushy, and acid cheese.

The firm which forwarded this report to the dairy commissioner concurred in it and expressed the desire to see cool curing made compulsory.

M. J. BURKE, *Consul.*

ST. THOMAS, ONTARIO, CANADA, *October 27, 1904.*

NORTH BOHEMIA INDUSTRIAL EXPOSITION IN 1906.

(From United States Consul McFarland, Reichenberg, Austria.)

For several years, especially in German manufacturing circles, financial preparations have been maturing for the holding of an industrial exposition of more than ordinary magnitude in Reichenberg in 1906. Complete success has been achieved. The guaranty fund approximates \$600,000, to which every city in German Bohemia has contributed. This fund is only a guaranty against financial loss, and therefore does not represent the outlay on buildings, grounds, and administration, for in this part of Europe these expositions are conducted upon a purely business basis and are expected at least to meet expenses. A large force of workmen is now engaged in grading and preparing the grounds, and it is proposed to complete the buildings so that everything, including installation, shall be ready on the opening day in May, 1906. The exposition will continue until October.

As no other general exposition, either in Austria or Germany, is thus far scheduled for 1906, it is practically certain that Reichenberg will then monopolize the attention of the exhibitors and public in German Europe. All branches of Bohemian industry—manufacturing, agriculture, forestry, art, etc.—will be represented in collective exhibits, such as have never before been assembled. As manufacturing in Bohemia, although of immense volume, is scattered in small villages over a wide territory, it will be the first opportunity offered the American buyer comprehensively to inspect Bohemian productions, especially in cotton, linen, wool, glass, precious and imitation stones, imitation jewelry, and the peculiar manufactures of the Gablonz district, which form the bulk of exports to the United States.

To an inquiry as to whether foreign exhibits were desired or would be permitted, answer was made that auxiliary machines and materials, such as are not produced in Bohemia, would be admissible; in other words, only noncompetitive articles. This is an unsatisfactory definition, intentionally made so, it is to be presumed, in order to keep control securely within the hands of the management, who will pass upon applications according to their merit and noncompetitive character.

No such opportunity, perhaps for another decade, will be afforded American advanced processes and novelties to cultivate this widely distributed and difficult market. Applications for space, etc., should be accompanied by full particulars of the proposed exhibit and be addressed: An die Ausstellungsleitung, gräfl. Schloss, Reichenberg, Böhmen.

S. C. MCFARLAND, *Consul.*

REICHENBERG, AUSTRIA, *October 15, 1904.*

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS IN CHINA.

(*From United States Consul Anderson, Hangchow, China.*)

There has been practically no demand for American agricultural implements in China up to date, and present indications are that it will be a long time, except in Manchuria and North China, before the conditions will be such that modern farm machinery will be useful to the Chinese with their small garden farms and cheap labor. But it is probable that modern American garden implements will soon be welcomed and that there will be a wide field for enterprise in this line. At present the native tools are such as have been in use for centuries. They are not good tools, perhaps, but they are made cheaply and are used by cheap labor. In several instances within my observation small garden force pumps have been welcomed by progressive gardeners, and I am of the opinion that small garden hand plows will also be well received. It is possible that cheap but substantial American rakes and hoes could be sold. It is well to bear in mind that the general introduction of a single one of these articles in China would mean the sale of an immense number. Chinese farmers are commencing to consider foreign ideas and methods, and there will soon be a breaking up of present methods and a turning to new tools. All land culture in China is intensive and the tools must suit intensive methods of farming.

GEORGE E. ANDERSON, *Consul.*

HANGCHOW, CHINA, *October 15, 1904.*

NOTES.

Electric Tramway for West Fife, Scotland.—A company has been formed here by local parties to build an electric railway through the west of Fifeshire. The promoters have given notice to the Fife County council, the corporations of Dunfermline, Inverkeithing, Cowdenbeath, and Lochgelly of their intention to apply to Parliament in November for provisional orders to carry out the scheme. The stock will then be floated, and it is expected the company will begin the construction of the road in the spring of 1905. The road will be 16 miles in length, and besides connecting the towns mentioned will ultimately touch the new naval base, on the Firth of Forth, referred to in my previous annual report. The estimated initial cost is £130,000 (\$632,645). The Fife Electric Power Company, which is now building a power plant here, will supply the power required for all purposes in the operation of the tramway system when completed.—*John N. McCunn, United States Consul, Dunfermline, Scotland, October 27, 1904.*

Artificial Silk Factory in Bohemia.—Negotiations have been completed for the erection in this district of a factory for the manufacture of so-called artificial silk—the first concern of the kind in Austria. Several prominent manufacturers of Pilnikau are interested, but the manager will be a chemist from Rhenish Prussia who has the secret of manufacture. The plans contemplate a large factory, but at first only a trial plant, costing about \$80,000, will be erected. Ground has been broken between Pilsdorf and the railway station at Wildschütz, and building material is on hand. The product, of which cotton is said to be the basis, is awaited with considerable curiosity in manufacturing circles.—*S. C. McFarland, Consul, Reichenberg, Austria, October 17, 1904.*

Meat-Slicing Machine in Scotland.—There is likely to be a permanent demand for ham and bacon slicing machines among grocers and butchers throughout Scotland, as such have been successfully introduced, and those who have purchased find them to be of such utility as to be unwilling to dispense with them. The ones in use here are of German manufacture, and are being sold by Edinburgh agents at about £16 (\$77.86) each. I am informed that there is an American machine on the market that is heavier and higher priced. I have never seen one, and no attempt has been made to introduce the machine here.—*John N. McCunn, United States Consul, Dunfermline, Scotland, October 27, 1904.*

Pilchard Fishery.—The Pilchard fishery for the 1903-4 season resulted in some 27,500 casks being pickled. This is regarded as a very moderate product. The tendency of late years for the summer fishery to be successful and for the autumn and winter fisheries to fall off was again very pronounced; the quantity pickled from the opening of the season in July to the end of September being about 20,000 casks. As stated in my previous reports Italy remains the market for these fish, although there is some demand from New York and Boston on behalf of Italians resident there.—*Howard Fox, Consul, Falmouth, England, October 27, 1904.*

Iron Trade in Austria.—As the result of the formation last year of an iron trust, which is to continue for ten years, prices have gradually risen. At present, the building business in Austria promises to improve, and long-delayed orders for iron are now being given; consequently the iron trade is increasing and very likely better prices will be obtained in the near future.—*John S. Twells, United States Commercial Agent, Carlsbad, Austria, October 27, 1904.*

DEC 10 1904

PRINCETON, N. J.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

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DAILY CONSULAR REPORTS

DECEMBER 9, 1904

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1904

COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS OF JAMAICA.

(From United States Vice-Consul Orrett, Kingston, Jamaica.)

FOREIGN COMMERCE.

The value of the imports into Jamaica during the fiscal year ended March 31, 1904, amounted to \$9,733,462, an increase of \$237,986 over 1903. The exports of Jamaica during 1904 amounted to \$7,510,309, a decrease of \$3,645,339 from those of 1903.

The percentages of the imports and exports from and to the several countries in 1903 and 1904 were as follows:

Percentage of imports and exports from and to Jamaica in 1903 and 1904.

Country.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1903.	1904.	1903.	1904.
United Kingdom	50.1	47.6	19.1	18.8
United States	40.3	42.4	68.1	59.4
Canada	6.9	7	2.3	5.4
Other countries	2.7	8	10.5	16.4

The falling off of 8.7 per cent in the exports to the United States in 1904 is explained by the suspension of the fruit trade, caused by the cyclone of August, 1903.

PERCENTAGE VALUE OF JAMAICAN PRODUCTS.

The following statement shows the relative importance of the island's products during the past two years:

Percentage value of various products of Jamaica in 1903 and 1904.

Product.	Percentage value.	
	1903.	1904.
Sugar	7.6	8.2
Rum	7	6.5
Coffee	5.9	7.6
Dyewoods	5.1	7.9
Fruit	59.8	45.8
Pimento	4.1	6
Minor products	11	18.5

SHIPPING STATISTICS.

During the year 1904, 133 steamers arrived from the United Kingdom as against 123 in 1903, while 61 cleared for there against 71 in 12501

1903. Steamers arriving from the United States in 1904 numbered 466, as against 730 in 1903, showing a decrease of 264, while 449 cleared from the island for the United States in 1904 as against 737 in 1903. This decrease was due solely to the hurricane of August, 1903. For the succeeding eight months very few ships cleared for the United States on account of the small quantity of fruit obtainable.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION.

Agricultural education is making great strides in Jamaica under the auspices of the agricultural societies. From time to time technical lecturers are sent throughout the island lecturing to the small cultivators on improved methods of farming and the advantages to be gained by the use of improved implements. Good seed has been sown, and, in course of time, I venture to say there will be an increased demand for agricultural machinery, which will come principally from the United States if our manufacturers will carefully watch this new development in the island. The British Government is taking exceptional interest in the movement, and has established in the West Indies an imperial agricultural department, having its headquarters at Barbados, with branches in the other islands, and marked improvement in the methods of agriculture is already noticeable.

TEA CULTURE.

The growing of tea has met with considerable success. Jamaican tea is now being retailed by the principal grocers and bids fair to hold its own against importations from Ceylon and China.

COTTON CULTURE.

Considerable interest is now being taken in growing cotton in Jamaica, and, in fact, throughout the entire British West Indies. The British Cotton Growing Association and the British Government have been experimenting on suitable lands for its growth throughout the British West Indies during the past year. Cotton experts have been making trials and the industry is receiving the best scientific advice possible. It would appear from the experiments that sea-island cotton is considered the best. The islands of the West Indies were the starting point for this sort of cotton; it was the quality that in former years was in great demand among the spinners in the cotton districts of England. The report by the imperial commissioner shows that there are over 2,000,000 acres available for the growth of the staple. In this island a very large acreage is under cultivation. Small shipments have been made with favorable results, and it is anticipated that a very large area will shortly be under cultivation. In addition to sea-island cotton, growers are also experimenting with the

Egyptian species. Cotton was abandoned in favor of sugar and the land reverted to bush, but throughout the island of Jamaica very many cotton plants remain, proving that the West Indies may be regarded as a natural habitat of cotton.

There are in Jamaica 100,000 acres of seaboard land available for planting, possessing in climate the requisite amount of warmth and moisture, and having the economic facilities of good roads, railway, and wharf accommodations, etc. The price of sea-island cotton averages 28 cents per pound in England, from which must be deducted the charges for ginning, freight, insurance, brokerage, etc., making the price to the producer, say, 18 cents per pound. It will be seen that, estimating an acre to give 900 pounds of seed cotton or 300 pounds of lint at 18 cents per pound, \$54.74 is realized. From this should be deducted the cost of bringing 1 acre of land into cultivation, which may be estimated at \$24.33, and the cost of land, which may be roughly taken at \$9.73 an acre, still leaves a handsome margin of profit. Jamaica has one unique advantage over other cotton-growing countries in possessing two distinct wet and two distinct dry seasons. This allows two crops of cotton to be picked in a year.

RAILWAY FREIGHTS AND HIGHWAYS.

Railway rates of freight are now under the consideration of the government, which owns all the roads of the island, with a view to make some reduction to meet the demands of fruit growers and shippers who are their chief supporters. There was a move to extend the railroad into the interior of the country, but in consequence of a serious deficit in the island's budget last year this has been delayed for future consideration. A very appreciable number of highways have been made, connecting the seaboard with the interior, thus opening up large agricultural centers with great possibilities of development.

WILLIAM H. ORRETT, *Vice-Consul*.

KINGSTON, JAMAICA, *October 24, 1904.*

AUSTRIAN BANKING.

(*From United States Commercial Agent Twells, Carlsbad, Austria.*)

The rate of exchange which the bankers of this consular district charge for Austrian money is 4.86, i. e., they pay 486 crowns for \$100 American money, but a commission is charged for cashing drafts, bills of exchange, letters of credit, etc.

The banking system differs greatly from the one customary in the United States. Nearly all the merchants have accounts with the Imperial Royal Post-Office Savings Bank at Vienna, and bills are usually paid by instructing that bank, which has no branch offices in

the Empire, to pay to their creditors the sums due to them. Many firms when invoicing goods to private individuals inclose a form which the receiver fills and takes to the nearest post-office, where he pays the amount for the account of his creditor. In the ordinary course of business persons in private life pay their bills in cash or by post-office money orders, not by check as in the United States.

The services of banks are mostly required to change foreign moneys, draw on acceptances, discount bills, and buy and sell foreign values. Bank accounts are uncommon and are generally confined to large firms.

JOHN S. TWELLS, *Commercial Agent.*

CARLSBAD, AUSTRIA, *October 27, 1904.*

LONDON POLICE STATISTICS.

(*From United States Consul-General Evans, London, England.*)

The report of the commissioner of police of the metropolis for the year 1903 contains some interesting facts and figures.

NUMBER AND PAY.

The metropolitan district extends over a radius of 15 miles from Charing Cross (exclusive of the city of London which is about 1 mile square, St. Paul's being near the center) and embraces an area of 688.31 square miles. The number of police available was 25 superintendents, 474 inspectors, 1,886 sergeants, and 12,225 constables (patrolmen), total 14,620. The pay of the force amounts to £1,461,140 (\$7,110,638).

An average of one-fourteenth of the force (918) is daily on leave, 1 day's leave of absence to each man being granted every fortnight. Those absent from duty on account of sickness average 444 daily.

NUMBER OF ARRESTS, ACCIDENTS, AND MURDERS.

Accidents occurred in the streets during 1903 by which 154 persons were killed, as compared with 175 for 1902, and 186 for 1901. There were 10,202 persons injured in street accidents, as compared with 9,505 in 1902 and 9,197 in 1901.

The number of persons arrested was 124,554, of whom 3,322 were convicted by the law courts, and 98,583 by magistrates. There were 684 cases of acquittal, bills ignored by sessions, etc., and 21,887 were discharged by magistrates. There were 12,349 more arrests than in 1902.

In 1903, 17 murders were committed, as compared with 20 in 1902. Nine persons were arrested in eight of these cases; in the remaining nine the murderers committed suicide. The number of cases of manslaughter was 22.

LICENSES FOR CONVEYANCES.

Licenses for public or street conveyances were issued as follows: 7,499 two-wheeled hansoms; 3,906 four-wheeled carriages, single horse; 3,696 omnibuses; 1,719 street cars; total, 16,760. A rigid system of

inspection is maintained on this branch of the public service, and during the year 6,907 hackney carriages, 1,289 omnibuses, 2,549 horses, and 716 harness outfits were found to be wanting repairs, deficient in public safety or comfort, or in some way requiring to be brought up to the standard, and notices were served on the proprietors. Licenses were issued to 10,114 conductors (omnibus, cars, etc.); 13,470 hackney drivers (hansoms and four-wheelers); 7,501 stage drivers (for animals); 1,462 stage drivers (mechanical power); total, 32,547. All applicants must pass an examination as to competency, knowledge of London, etc. There were 1,039 first applications for licenses as hackney drivers during the year, and of this number 234 failed; 1,242 "original" applicants for stage drivers' licenses applied, and of this number 172 failed.

LOST AND STOLEN PROPERTY.

The lost property found in public carriages (omnibuses, street cars, hansoms, etc.) and deposited with the police amounted to 48,188 pieces, classified as follows: Hand bags, 3,639; clothing (men's), 2,594; clothing (women's), 2,421; jewelry, 1,225; watches, 245; purses, 3,494; opera glasses, 753; rugs, 265; sticks, 861; umbrellas, 21,956; miscellaneous, 10,735. Among the miscellaneous items were several live birds, dogs, and one human skull; 23,554 articles were returned to owner claimants, and the rest, after remaining unclaimed three months, were returned to the drivers or conductors depositing them; 35,018 dogs were seized and 5,497 were restored to their owners.

The value of property stolen in 1903 was £191,885 (\$933,808), of which £42,108 (\$204,919) was recovered; 35,262 persons were reported missing, of whom 18,862 were found and restored to friends by the police, and 16,076 were found by friends, or returned home.

The number of suicides was 680, while 715 persons attempted suicide, but were prevented by the police. The number of fires was 2,661. Drivers of street carriages, carts, etc., to the number of 9,922 were summoned and convicted, and 458 were dismissed.

DRUNK AND DISORDERLY CASES.

In drunk and disorderly cases the arrests were, males, 38,495; females, 21,219; total, 59,714. This was 8.67 per 1,000 of the population, the largest percentage since 1853. Of the arrests there were discharged by the magistrates, males, 3,817; females, 2,931; total, 6,748; and there were summarily convicted by magistrates, males, 34,673; females, 18,285; total, 52,958. The total number of "public houses" (licensed vendors of distilled and malt liquors) was 14,127.

PROPOSED INCREASE OF PAY.

The following appeared recently in the Daily Telegraph as an interview with the metropolitan police commissioner on the proposition to increase the pay of the police:

The metropolitan police constable is recruited largely in the country, and receives 16s. (\$3.84) per week during the probationary and training period. Directly he wears the blue uniform he earns 24s. (\$5.84) per week and so long as he remains a constable (patrolman) he rises to

32s. (\$7.79) per week. Many men reluctant to undertake responsibility have no wish to ascend to a higher grade, but every man has the chance to become sergeant, and promotion from rank to rank may follow until the officer becomes superintendent of a division. A young fellow of 20—sometimes he is actually under that age—is therefore placed in steady employment with a minimum of 24s. (\$5.84) per week. If single, he may lodge in a section house, which will cost him 1 shilling (24 cents) per week rent, and, say, 7s. (\$1.70) for board. His uniform is supplied free, and it costs the authorities £5 (\$24.33) per year, or, say, 2s. (49 cents) per week. The only deduction from the weekly pay is one of 2 per cent—the men's contribution toward the superannuation allowance, which can be claimed after twenty-five years' service, and at the rate of approximately two-thirds of the pay if twenty-six years be put in.

OLD LONDON.

The city of London—the lord mayoralty (old London), St. Paul's church being near the center—contains 671 acres, with a night population of about 31,000 and a day population (the heart of greater London) of about 350,000. It has a separate and distinct police organization from that of the metropolitan district as follows: One superintendent, 1 superintendent of detective department, 3 chief inspectors, 15 district inspectors, 23 station inspectors, 12 detective inspectors, 74 sergeants, 7 detective sergeants, and 865 constables (patrolmen). There are besides two courts of justice (Guildhall and Mansion House) where the lord mayor and aldermen preside.

In addition to all this force, there are employed in greater London (including the lord mayoralty and metropolitan district), 5 superintendents, 52 inspectors, 227 sergeants, and about 1,670 constables (patrolmen) on special duties for various Government departments, including special protection of posts at public offices and buildings, dockyards, and military stations, and public companies and individuals. This force is paid by the departments and persons concerned.

CHARACTER AND DUTIES OF POLICE.

The London policeman, as a rule, is remarkably well informed in many ways; he is a general traffic manager and supervises and directs the immense street traffic in the congested centers and at the street crossings. When the policeman raises his hand the hundreds of vehicles, electric broughams, motor cars, victorias, carriages, hansom, four-wheelers, omnibuses, drays, trucks—everything on that side of the street—stops, and waits without a protest, until the similar traffic from a cross street passes; then it is stopped off in another direction. So it is managed every day—discipline and good judgment preventing blockades and entanglements. The London policeman must pass a civil-service examination, as well as a physical examination, to secure his place. He is expected to be a "walking encyclopedia" on all matters pertaining to greater London, and his knowledge of localities, streets, places, etc., is wonderful. He is always most courteous and obliging to the ladies and those seeking street information.

When it is necessary to discipline any one of the thousands of licensed omnibus drivers or conductors, hansom or hackney drivers, or others, for violation of street or municipal ordinances they are notified to appear at court at a certain time and place. They appear; otherwise the license may be withdrawn, and if once withdrawn it is hard to get another. It is to the interest of the London policeman to do his duty, his whole duty, courteously, kindly, but firmly; in this the courts sustain the force. The result is a splendid street discipline with far-reaching effects in the way of respect for the law.

H. CLAY EVANS, *Consul-General*.

LONDON, ENGLAND, *October 9, 1904.*

OCEAN-GOING MOTOR BOATS.

(*From United States Consul Halstead, Birmingham, England.*)

Mr. W. E. H. Humphries, a Cambridge science graduate who has devoted himself to the study of the use of high-power internal combustion engines for submarine vessels and is a practical motorist of wide experience, writing on motor-boat building in the publication *To-day*, says that the folly of those makers who propose competing in the Atlantic motor-boat race with 40-foot boats furnished with 100 horsepower motors should be apparent when he states that they would require for the journey 15 tons of fuel, which would occupy more than the whole cubic space of the hull. Mr. Humphries fears that many of the competitors in the trans-Atlantic race will fall into the mistake of throwing any handy big engine into any convenient boat without regard to the question of design, proper engine bed, distribution of weight, etc. The motor boats which crossed the English Channel, "excellent as they were for their own particular purposes, were more or less freak boats," because in design they fell away from the lines normally maintained in marine practice. In yacht designing "the highest ambition of those who aim at speed is to exceed a speed in knots greater than the square root and a quarter of the vessel's length. The Atlantic liners can not do it; motor boats and the torpedo-boat destroyer can, but such speed is only attainable at enormous extravagance and by making the vessels mere receptacles of vibrating machinery and limiting their range."

Writing on this subject for the *Pall Mall Gazette*, he expresses the opinion that—

To cross the ocean in a manner to fulfill the published details a boat must be nearer 400 feet than 40 feet. The conditions of the race are that the boats shall be able to travel at a speed of at least 15 knots, shall carry all their own fuel, lubricating oil, and spare parts, and shall start with at least 6 persons on board. This at once rules out of the contest all small racing craft, for, apart from questions of accommo-

dition and seaworthiness, they could not carry the fuel to feed their engines. The normal consumption of a petrol engine may be regarded as 1 pint per horsepower per hour, which means that for every 100 horsepower of the engine there is consumed approximately 300 gallons per day. With a 15-knot boat the passage from Havre to New York might be expected to occupy from twelve to fifteen days. Hence for every 100 horsepower of the engine it will be necessary to carry 4,500 gallons of fuel, occupying approximately 723 cubic feet of space and weighing 15 tons, or more, if fuels heavier and less efficient than petrol be employed. To complete the absurdity, the Calais-Dover racer would require, to enable it to cross the Atlantic, a bulk of petrol of greater weight and greater displacement than the boat itself. Seemingly nothing smaller than a torpedo-boat destroyer could attempt to fulfill the conditions laid down, and for a vessel of these dimensions an engine of 500 horsepower would not be excessive.

MARSHAL HALSTEAD, *Consul*.

BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND, *October 28, 1904.*

GOVERNMENT BY EXPERTS.

(From *London Daily Mail*, forwarded by *United States Consul Haynes, Rouen, France, November 10, 1904.*)

Although it can not be said that there are no poor in Berlin, nor that it is altogether without rags and wretchedness, yet, as a rule, they "do not show the dust bins."

One difference between London and Berlin is that the one is ruled by anybody who can catch votes, the other only by men of the highest probity and proved ability in municipal affairs. So that when the stranger comes to London—the London of unlimited philanthropy and well-nigh universal charity—he is shocked by the eternal squalor and destitution of our streets; and when he visits Berlin—the Berlin which is practically irreligious, and certainly with nothing of London's charity—he is amazed by the cleanliness and prosperity, not only of every street, but of every citizen.

Berlin is ruled by municipal experts. It has its wretchedness and its despair, but these things are not permitted to increase. To be out of work in Berlin is a crime, even as it is in London, but with this difference, in Berlin the municipality legislates for labor in a fashion which makes idleness all but indefensible.

The laws to this end may not commend themselves to English minds, for the German is not softhearted in such matters; but they have this engaging recommendation, they succeed. Let a ragged man make his appearance in Friedrichstrasse or the Lindens, or in any of the numerous open spaces, and in a minute a policeman is after his papers. If it is proved that he has slept in the asylum for the homeless more than a certain number of nights he is forthwith conducted, willy-nilly, to the workhouse and made to labor for his board and lodging.

The workhouse in Germany is not a prison, but the vagrant would as lief go to the one as to the other. The administration of the workhouse is conducted with iron severity; every ounce of bread and every drop of thin soup consumed by the workhouse man is paid for a thousandfold by the sweat of his brow. So it comes about that the man least disposed to work, the born vagabond, finds it more agreeable to

toil for his bread in the market than to fall into the hands of a paternal government.

Berlin takes advantage of the system in Germany which numbers and tickets every child born in the Fatherland. No man can roam from district to district, changing his name and his life's story with every flitting. He is known to the police from the hour of his birth to the hour of his death. For a few pfennigs I can read the history of every person in Berlin. Therefore the municipality has an easy task. Every citizen's life story is known to them, and every vagrant is punished for his crime against the community.

Moreover, every person of humble means is insured by the State. Even clerks, shop assistants, and servants are compelled to insure against sickness and against old age. This insurance is effected by the pasting into a book of certain stamps every week, and it is the duty of each employer to see that this contract is faithfully obeyed. And now the State has built at Beelitz an enormous sanatorium, costing 10,000,000 marks (\$2,380,000), where the invalided citizen is sent with his pension, in order to expedite his valuable return to the ranks of the wage-earners. It pays the city of Berlin to nurse its sick and cherish its invalids. The whole object of the municipality is to secure the physical and intellectual well-being of its citizens; and on this task it concentrates its labors with amazing energy.

I have talked about this subject with Doctor Freund, the chairman of State insurance for Berlin. He is a favorite with the Kaiser, and our own King and Queen have discussed with him the subject of the health of the working classes. No man understands his business better than this small, neat German. The State, he holds, should do everything to fit its citizens for the battle of commercial competition; and when it has done everything; when it has first equipped, then safeguarded, and afterwards assisted in distress, it should punish sternly and steadfastly the lazy and the indolent. Fall sick, says the State to its work people, and we will nurse you back to vigor; drop out of employment, and we will find you fresh work; grow old, and we will provide you with bread and butter; but become lazy and vagabond, and we will lock you up and make you work till you have paid the uttermost farthing of your debt.

Berlin has erected a huge building resembling a factory, where the unemployed—whole families—are received and provided for. But no one must take advantage of this hospitality more than five times in three months. Consider this point of view. If you are homeless five times in three months you are dubbed a reckless creature and packed off to the workhouse. Private enterprise, with the socialist, Herr Singer, at its head, has provided another asylum where the homeless may come five times in one month and where the police are not allowed to enter at night. I have visited this place and have seen the people who attend it—some decent enough, others criminal in every line of their faces. There are many of these desperate men in Berlin, many of these dirty, ragged, and unhappy wretches, doomed from the day of their birth, but they dare not show themselves in the decent world as they do in London. They slink into these asylums at 5 o'clock; they have their clothes disinfected; they cleanse themselves under shower baths; they eat bread and drink soup, and then they go to bed at 8 like prisoners to their cells.

Now this system is a hard one, for when once a man gets down in

Berlin it is almost impossible for him to rise, but it has this clear advantage—everybody feels that it is better to work than to fall into the hands of the law.

Rags and misery dare not lie about in the parks or scatter disease through the crowded streets. If there is any virtue in the unemployed the State will certainly develop it as well as it is possible to do so. There is a central bureau for providing men with work, and when a man knows that not to work means the workhouse he solicits employment here and elsewhere with such a will as almost compels wages. In one year the State has secured employment for 50,000 men.

The citizen is provided with sanitary dwellings, with unadulterated food, with schools and technical colleges, and with insurance for sickness and old age. For a penny he can travel almost from one end of Berlin to the other by electric tramway or electric railway. His streets are clean, brilliantly lighted, and noiseless; his cafés and music halls are innumerable. He lives in a palace. And all this is the result of municipal government by experts instead of by amateurs.

NICE-CUNEO RAILWAY.

(From United States Consul Van Buren, Nice, France.)

An understanding has finally been reached between the French and Italian Governments respecting the projected railway from Nice to Cuneo. The present status is as follows: The length of the French portion of the line Nice-Breil-Foutan to the frontier will be 58 kilometers (36 miles). It has lately been rumored that a strategic branch line will be built from Escarène to Luceram, with a length of 12 kilometers (7½ miles). The Italian portion of the line consists of two branches. One of these, starting at the frontier where the French branch terminates, will run to Cuneo, via Vievola and St. Delmas de Teude; the second one will run from Breil to Vintimille. The former, as far as I can ascertain, will have a length of about 60 kilometers (37½ miles) and the latter of 23 kilometers (14½ miles).

The French and Italian Governments have signed a convention for the construction and exploitation of the principal line Nice-Breil-Vievola, and of the branch line from Breil to Vintimille. According to that convention, the lines must be completed and in operation within eight years from the date of the confirmation of the convention by the Parliament and Chamber. The Italian Parliament has already given its approval to the convention, and the French Chambers will soon be called upon to confirm it. There appears to be no doubt as to such confirmation. The preliminary steps to the building of the lines have already been taken in France, but not in Italy. This will enable the French Government, as soon as the convention is approved, to present a law declaring the line to be of "utilité publique," thus cutting short many delays that might otherwise ensue. From present indications, I should judge that this will occur early in the

coming year. This accomplished, the building of the roads should commence in 1906 at latest. I have not been able to ascertain that an approximate estimate of the cost has yet been made, but all opinions agree that they will be very expensive roads to build.

HAROLD S. VAN BUREN, *Consul*.

NICE, FRANCE, *October 24, 1904.*

PALM-LEAF HAT TRUST OF MALAGA.

(From United States Consul Birch, Malaga, Spain.)

Palm-leaf hat exporters, who have for years past engaged in almost daily commercial strife while purchasing hats from the rural makers, have formed a combination, with the result that one price now prevails for the different grades instead of several as heretofore. The export of these hats to New York, which is their only market, numbers between 3,000,000 and 4,000,000 a year. They are made from the narrow leaf of the palm grown in the adjacent country districts, where thousands of families, from grandfather to children not yet in their teens, are from January to December engaged in working the leaf into shape. These people compose, by the way, probably the most industrious and prosperous working class of southern Spain. They bring the hats to Malaga on the backs of mules and dispose of their wares to local merchants.

Prior to the formation of the "trust" hats were sold to the highest bidder, but under the present arrangement one house buys all of them at a fixed price and divides with other dealers. The combination pertains, however, only to the purchase of the hats, each merchant offering them to New York buyers at his own figure.

D. R. BIRCH, *Consul*.

MALAGA, SPAIN, *October 26, 1904.*

VINTAGE OF 1904.

(From United States Consul Atwell, Roubatx, France.)

The following extract from a competent English source announces excellent results from the vintage of 1904, which is expected to be a great wine year, and this is borne out by the following reports from the various districts:

Champagne.—The vintage has proceeded under favorable conditions, retarded only by a few days of rain. August and September were not so favorable, but the wines of this year will be of a very good quality and above the average in quantity.

Claret.—The weather throughout the claret districts has been very fine and warm, with now and then a little rain, sufficient to prove bene-

ficial to the wines. The grapes have attained perfect maturity and there is no trace whatever of disease. It is fully expected that some very fine wines will be made.

Burgundy.—The vintage operations for Burgundy are taking place in splendid weather, and the wines of this year will be of a superior quality. The grapes have ripened well.

Hock and moselle.—There is every prospect of a very fine vintage in these wines. The weather has been generally favorable, and it is hoped that the 1904 wines will rank among the years which have made hock and moselle famous throughout the world.

Cognac brandy.—The prospects for cognac brandy are most promising. Most of the growers declare the quantity will be fully up to that of 1900, and in many cases larger. The quality is expected to be very fine. Owing to the extremely warm weather all through the summer season the wines will certainly show a high alcoholic strength.

Port.—The show of grapes is the best that has been seen for many years, but the dry summer and great heat in August have caused much of the fruit to shrivel. It is hoped, however, that some good wine will be made, although of the quality it is too early to speak.

Sherry.—The alcoholic strength of the musts is, on the whole, quite up to the usual standard, while the large quantity of saccharin they contain gives promise that they will develop into sound, full-bodied wines.

W. P. ATWELL, *Consul.*

ROUBAIX, FRANCE, *October 10, 1904.*

DECREASE IN THE OLIVE-OIL OUTPUT OF SPAIN.

(From United States Consul Birch, Malaga, Spain.)

After two successive seasons of almost unprecedented yields of olives in Andalucia, the crop of this province and of the surrounding provinces has resumed ordinary proportions. Coincident with the reduction of the size of a season's production follows as a natural sequence a falling off in the exportation of olive oil, though but 10 per cent of a season's yield finds its way into foreign markets.

The crop of 1902 was the largest yield of the past decade, it being estimated that 40,000,000 arrobas (178,520,000 gallons) of oil were pressed in the provinces of Cordoba, Jaen, Seville, Granada, and Malaga. Dry weather during the period in 1903 when the olive was ripening caused much of the fruit to mature early and fall from the trees. In this manner a considerable amount of the crop was ruined, with the result that the quantity of oil pressed in the latter part of the year was approximately one-third less than that of the previous year, and in almost exactly this proportion were the sales to American houses decreased. A comparison of consular invoice figures show the exports to the United States for the nine months ended September 30, 1903 and 1904, to have been as follows: 1903, 21,082 barrels, valued at \$494,633; 1904, 14,253 barrels, valued at \$323,387.

Prices vary but little from one year to another, \$150 per ton being the usual figure. The olive oil exported from Malaga is of the class used for manufacturing purposes and never for table use.

Early advices are that the coming crop, to be pressed in December, will be to some extent smaller than the past one. Hot and dry weather, in excess of previous years, is given as the primary cause for this condition. Rain is badly needed at this time to insure a good crop.

D. R. BIRCH, *Consul*.

MALAGA, SPAIN, *October 26, 1904.*

STREET PAVING IN EDINBURGH.

(*From United States Consul Fleming, Edinburgh, Scotland.*)

Yielding to the popular desire for the abatement, as far as practicable, of the noise arising from traffic on granite-paved streets, the corporation of Edinburgh has resolved in favor of the more general use of hard wood in the leading thoroughfares where the gradients will permit. The committee in charge of street improvements has ordered that in laying new wood paving the blocks shall be dipped in hot pitch, laid close in the joints, and grouted with the pitch. "The adoption of such a system will," says the chairman, "by reason of its compactness, effect a reduction in the wear and tear of the blocks, while at the same time prevent water from finding its way through the joints and causing rot at the bottom; it will also to a large extent prevent the expansion which usually takes place where open joints and cement grouting exist." The committee lays much stress on the necessity of having wood-paved surfaces washed and brushed thoroughly at least three times a week.

The average cost of wood paving (Australian hard wood) in this city has been 13s. 6d. (\$3.28) per superficial yard, and the average life ten years; average cost of granite streets, 10s. (\$2.43) per superficial yard, and the life about fifteen years. At present there are in Edinburgh 81 miles of granite streets, 80 miles of macadam, and about 3 miles of wood. The committee favors, but the council has not yet adopted, asphalt for streets in central localities where the vehicular traffic is not heavy, and tar macadam for streets in suburban and residential districts.

RUFUS FLEMING, *Consul*.

EDINBURGH, SCOTLAND, *November 2, 1904.*

MALAGA RAISINS AND ALMONDS.

(From United States Consul Birch, Malaga, Spain.)

American commercial interest in Malaga largely centers in the "muscatel" raisin and the "Jordan" almond, both products being indigenous to this province. The crop of each, now being marketed, is considerably below the yield of last season.

RAISINS.

The raisin crop of 1903 was close to 1,100,000 boxes, of 22 pounds each, but the crop of 1904 is only 800,000 boxes. Unusual hot weather during the summer months is held responsible for this shrinkage. The size of the fruit is also noticeably affected, the smaller raisins predominating. This condition does not affect the American market to the same extent as the European, as the smaller sizes are those in demand by American buyers.

Despite this shortage, the opening first-cost prices remained the same as the three past seasons. A sudden and severe storm in early September, at the time the grapes were drying, destroyed many hundreds of boxes of marketable fruit, and this caused an immediate rise in the price of two of the grades popular in the United States.

JORDAN ALMONDS.

"Jordan" almond trees have yielded about 60,000 boxes, a return to normal conditions, after the extensive production of 1903. The nut is large and otherwise desirable, and about half the crop has been marketed to date. Prices have changed but little.

D. R. BIRCH, *Consul.*

MALAGA, SPAIN, *October 26, 1904.*

NOTES.

Street Railways in Smyrna.—The first line of tramway in Smyrna was inaugurated in 1879 with about 3 miles of track. It is known as the Tramways des Quais, and is operated by a French company, of which the president, secretary, and general manager is Aimé Tissot. Twenty-five horse cars are in use on this line, which has recently been extended 5 miles. The only other line operating in Smyrna is the Société des Tramways, Smyrne-Guez-Tépé. This line began to run horse cars in 1886, with 2 miles of track; subsequent extensions have given them nearly 5 miles, and they require about twenty cars to accommodate their traffic. This is an Ottoman company, the president being N. Harentz, of Constantinople; treasurer and secretary, Bedros Boloubeyan; general manager, A. Harentz.—*Rufus W. Lane, Consul, Smyrna, Turkey, October 15, 1904.*

American Trade in Switzerland.—As to the best means to enlarge American trade in Switzerland, I am still of the opinion that American warehouses carrying the most salable articles should be established in at least one commercial city on the Continent. These should send out travelers to visit the merchants in the same manner that European firms (particularly Swiss houses) do. The Swiss merchants are, as a rule, much averse to ordering from catalogues and circulars weeks and months ahead of the time they need the goods. They want, as much as possible, to see samples and order from ready stock, when it can be done. I have made several inquiries as to methods of packing American goods shipped here, and in all cases I was informed that no complaint could be made in that direction. Ninety days is about the time given for payment of bills. Of course this matter depends a great deal upon agreements. Many of the financially good houses take advantage of discounts and pay cash, or in less than the given time.—*A. Lieberknecht, Consul, Zurich, Switzerland, October 31, 1904.*

Colombia Making Advances to Canadian Exporters.—The department of agriculture at Ottawa is in receipt of a letter from a gentleman residing in a large commercial center in Colombia, in which he says that the people there are anxious to establish trade relations with Canada, and that of late the writer had been asked several times for the names of Canadian firms who could supply commodities and manufactures in competition with the United States. Among other things, Colombia purchases flour, kerosene, sewing machines, canned goods, soda biscuits, and furniture in the United States. The gentleman adds that at present there is a great opportunity to get this trade, if Canadian exporters so desire. It is further intimated that there is a feeling in Colombia against trading with the United States.—*M. J. Burke, Consul, St. Thomas, Ontario, Canada, October 27, 1904.*

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

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DECEMBER 10, 1904

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REDUCED BEET-SUGAR CROP IN EUROPE.

(From United States Consul-General Mason, Berlin, Germany.)

The prediction made in these reports that the drought of the past summer throughout continental Europe would result in a more or less serious deficit in the sugar-beet crop and cause great loss in the output of sugar has been verified. That there would be a heavy falling off in the weight of beets gathered was evident early in September; to what extent this loss would be compensated for by concentration and higher percentage of sugar in the juice could only be told when the factories had progressed so far in working up the crop that the exact percentage of saccharine matter could be definitely known. This has been now ascertained with approximate certainty.

About the middle of October the International Association for Sugar Statistics sent out inquiries to all factories operating in the several countries of Europe, to which replies have been received based on the facts demonstrated up to the period between the 19th and 29th of October. These have been collected, tabulated, and, as published in the *Deutsche Zucker Industrie* of November 4, 1904, give the following exhibit of the comparative number of factories in operation in the seasons of 1903-4 and 1904-5, the gross weight of beets worked up and in hand to be worked, and the gross estimated output of sugar this year, as compared with the known product of 1903-4. The statistics of beets and sugar are in metric tons (2,204.6 pounds).

Number of beet-sugar factories in operation, supply of beets, and estimated production of sugar in Europe in seasons of 1903-4 and 1904-5.

Country.	Factories in operation.		Supply of beets.		Sugar produced.	
	1903-4.	1904-5.	1903-4.	1904-5.	1903-4.	1904-5.
Germany	384	375	<i>Metric tons.</i> 12,706,527	<i>Metric tons.</i> 9,983,240	<i>Metric tons.</i> 1,929,415	<i>Metric tons.</i> 1,518,070
Austria-Hungary	215	206	7,775,500	6,165,000	1,158,800	914,800
France	296	275	6,441,500	4,686,400	794,431	614,300
Belgium	100	90	1,550,000	1,267,000	202,850	179,100
The Netherlands	29	26	880,000	908,500	123,500	133,900
Russia	275	276	7,705,260	6,580,200	1,160,660	945,370
Sweden	17	18	748,446	591,000	107,241	88,200
Denmark	7	7	380,000	340,000	47,000	47,000
Total	1,323	1,273	38,187,233	30,471,340	5,523,897	4,440,740

NOTE BY BUREAU OF STATISTICS.—A report covering the European beet-sugar crops and embracing about the same estimates as are given in Consul-General Mason's report, was also received from United States Consul Diederich, of Bremen, Germany.

There was thus, to begin with, a falling off of 50 in the number of factories in operation as well as a decreased acreage of beet culture in most European countries, a result which may be ascribed to the effect of the Brussels conference, the withdrawal of governmental support from the sugar industry, and the declining profits of production during recent years. The result of decreased acreage and drought has been to reduce the actual beet crop by 7,715,893 tons, and the closely estimated sugar product by 1,083,157 tons, or 19.5 per cent, as compared with the crop of 1903. Statistics of beets produced per hectare (2.471 acres) and the percentage of sugar to beets are as yet available only from Germany. The average yield of German fields has been 24 metric tons per hectare (9.3 tons per acre), and the saccharine percentage ranged from 15.4 per cent in East Prussia to 13.3 per cent in Hesse, with a general average of 14.3 per cent for the whole Empire.

FRANK H. MASON, *Consul-General.*

BERLIN, GERMANY, *November 5, 1904.*

OPPORTUNITIES FOR TRADE IN AUSTRIA.

(*From United States Consul Hossfeld, Trieste, Austria.*)

American manufacturers and exporters do not make the best of their opportunities in this market. Various classes of goods could be sold as readily in this country as in Great Britain or Germany if the energy with which their sale is pushed in those more favored markets were also employed here.

Among the especially promising articles, I mention only office furniture, steel tools, boots and shoes, rubber goods, stationery, electric appliances, kiln-dried corn meal, and breakfast foods. The limited demand which already exists for these goods of American make is, as a rule, supplied by German importers. A Trieste merchant, for instance, while traveling in Germany sees an American roll-top desk. Learning that such desks may be purchased in Hamburg, he orders one for his personal use. His wife, perhaps, sees American shoes at some summer resort and admires their shape and finish. She finds that they are kept for sale in Berlin, and thereafter sends to that city for her supply of American foot gear. One also sees here not infrequently American rubber goods, pens, and blotters, electric appliances, etc. As these articles must pay double freight and double duty, their prices are often so high that only the wealthy can afford to buy them, and many commodities which at home are looked upon as necessities become here articles of luxury.

A general demand for our goods can be created in southern Austria, but it must be done by our own manufacturers and exporters. Sending

out letters and circulars will not answer the purpose; such literature usually goes to the wastebasket; nor can foreign agents be relied upon to expand our trade. By far the surest and really the cheapest way for our manufacturers to introduce their goods in any foreign country whose trade is worth having is to open in its principal cities stores and sample rooms of their own.

An American shoe store in Trieste could not fail to do a most profitable business. American foot wear is already favorably known here, but it seems impossible to find a retailer who will carry it. The principal shoe stores of the city are either owned or controlled by Viennese manufacturers, who will not permit any other than their own products to be sold in these establishments. Nor do I believe, in view of the pronounced conservatism of the average Austrian merchant, that any citizen of Trieste not now in the business could be induced to lay in a stock of American shoes and thereby enter into competition with the entire shoe trade of the country.

Similar conditions obtain in the furniture trade. The best stores are also controlled by Viennese manufacturers, with whom the sale of American goods is out of the question. The smaller dealers either are afraid to risk the experiment or do not possess the necessary capital to carry a stock of foreign goods, and especially American goods, which almost invariably must be paid for in advance.

If the establishment of an American furniture store at Trieste does not appear practicable at present, a furniture sample room might at least be opened here; and should the expense of its maintenance be too onerous for one manufacturer there is no good reason why several manufacturing firms whose products do not clash could not maintain it jointly. What is true of the shoe and furniture businesses applies with more or less force also to other branches of commerce.

There are certain lines of manufactured goods which Austrians would be glad to import from the United States if they were sold on terms similar to those offered by British and German manufacturers; but, while the latter frequently grant four or even six months' credit, our exporters almost invariably demand cash with order. In special cases, where time is given, it is usually limited to thirty or sixty days, which does not satisfy the Austrian buyer, considering the fact that thirty days must be allowed for the transit of the goods and at least fifteen days are lost in the remittance of the purchase money.

If our exporters and manufacturers wish to triumph abroad over their German and British rivals, they must accommodate themselves to foreign credit systems. Austrian jobbers and retailers are, as a rule, perfectly sound, but the majority of them, unfortunately, have not sufficient means to buy in a foreign market on a cash basis.

FREDERICK W. HOSSFELD, *Consul*.

TRIESTE, AUSTRIA, *October 31, 1904.*

AUSTRIAN RAILWAY FREIGHT RATES.

(From United States Consul Hossfeld, Trieste, Austria.)

Trieste is becoming more and more a mere port of transshipment, and a large portion of the goods arriving here pass at once into the hands of forwarding agents, to be shipped to points in the interior. As manufacturers and exporters in the United States are frequently asked by importers in the interior to quote them prices on goods delivered, they will doubtless appreciate the following revised list of railway freight rates from Trieste to the principal cities of the country:

Railway freight rates from Trieste to interior cities of Austria per 100 kilograms (220.46 pounds).^a

Articles.	Trieste to—					
	Vienna.	Buda-pest.	Prague.	Graz.	Linz.	Salzburg.
Iron and steel ware:						
Less than 5,000 kilograms.....	\$0.58	\$0.68	\$0.87	\$0.40	\$0.66	\$0.65
5,000 kilograms and over.....	.48	.58	.57	.35	.45	.44
10,000 kilograms and over.....	.45	.58	.57	.31	.44	.44
Agricultural machinery:						
Less than 5,000 kilograms.....	.63	.68	.87	.66	1.03	.65
5,000 kilograms and over.....	.69	.58	.57	.52	.66	.44
10,000 kilograms and over.....	.48	.40	.57	.31	.44	.44
Bicycles:						
Less than 5,000 kilograms.....	.94	1.50	1.82	.94	1.82	1.97
5,000 kilograms and over.....	.79	1.50	.87	.57	.73	.65
10,000 kilograms and over.....	.56	1.50	.57	.43	.52	.44
Paper:						
Less than 5,000 kilograms.....	.63	.68	1.21	.66	1.03	.88
5,000 kilograms and over.....	.63	.58	.87	.52	.89	.65
10,000 kilograms and over.....	.58	.58	.67	.43	.72	.50
Cotton:						
Less than 5,000 kilograms.....	.63	.68	.98	.49	.89	1.00
5,000 kilograms and over.....	.40	.58	.87	.40	.66	.65
10,000 kilograms and over.....	.40	.58	.47	.40	.52	.50
Oil, linseed, etc.:						
Less than 5,000 kilograms.....	.63	.68	1.08	.55	.87	.88
5,000 kilograms and over.....	.63	.58	.87	.52	.67	.65
10,000 kilograms and over.....	.36	.58	.66	.31	.48	.50
Cotton-seed oil:						
Less than 5,000 kilograms.....	.63	.68	1.21	.49	.96	1.00
5,000 kilograms and over.....	.63	.58	.87	.49	.66	.65
10,000 kilograms and over.....	.58	.49	.67	.43	.52	.50
Raw iron:						
Less than 5,000 kilograms.....	.59	.68	.87	.40	.66	.65
5,000 kilograms and over.....	.48	.58	.57	.35	.45	.44
10,000 kilograms and over.....	.32	.32	.44	.24	.34	.33
Blue vitriol:						
Less than 5,000 kilograms.....	.63	.68	1.21	.63	1.03	1.00
5,000 kilograms and over.....	.63	.58	.87	.52	.67	.65
10,000 kilograms and over.....	.58	.58	.67	.43	.53	.50
Smoked and salted meats:						
Less than 5,000 kilograms.....	.63	.68	1.21	.63	1.00	1.00
5,000 kilograms and over.....	.63	.60	.97	.57	.89	.87
10,000 kilograms and over.....	.63	.60	.76	.50	.72	.76
Bacon:						
Less than 5,000 kilograms.....	.63	.68	1.21	.63	1.03	1.00
5,000 kilograms and over.....	.63	.60	.97	.57	.89	.87
10,000 kilograms and over.....	.63	.60	.76	.50	.72	.76
Lard:						
Less than 5,000 kilograms.....	.63	.68	1.21	.66	1.01	1.00
5,000 kilograms and over.....	.63	.58	.87	.52	.67	.65
10,000 kilograms and over.....	.58	.58	.67	.43	.53	.40

^a Kilograms reduced to metric tons (2,204.6 pounds): 100 kilograms equals one-tenth of a ton; 5,000 kilograms, 5 tons; 10,000 kilograms, 10 tons.

FREDERICK W. HOSSFELD, Consul.

TRIESTE, AUSTRIA, October 31, 1904.

EXPORTS OF SILK GOODS FROM SWITZERLAND.*(From United States Consul Lieberknecht, Zurich, Switzerland.)*

The following statement shows the exports of silk goods from Switzerland during the years 1902 and 1903:

Value of silk goods exported from Switzerland to the several countries in 1902 and 1903.

Country.	1902.	1903.
Germany.....	\$1,047,478	\$955,190
Austria-Hungary	532,532	552,606
France.....	8,822,734	8,737,823
Belgium.....	533,615	498,714
England.....	10,799,489	9,890,174
North American countries.....	2,652,983	8,825,638
All other countries.....	2,344,804	2,607,052
Total.....	22,088,985	21,367,197

These figures show a falling off in the value of the exports of silk of \$666,738 in 1903 over the previous year, though the exports to the United States increased \$672,655. France and England appear to have purchased less silk from Switzerland in 1903.

During the first six months in 1904 the total value of silk goods shipped to America, including silk bolting cloth, was \$1,164,102, as against \$1,580,126 during the same period in 1903. This shows a considerable falling off, which is due both to change of fashion and overproduction. It must also be borne in mind that America is producing more silk from year to year.

A. LIEBERKNECHT, *Consul.*

ZURICH, SWITZERLAND, *October 31, 1904.*

TRADE AND INDUSTRIES OF THE LOIRE.*(From United States Consul Brunot, St. Etienne, France.)***COAL MINES.**

In the Department of the Loire are 57 active coal mines, whose output for 1903 was 3,529,156 tons, an increase of 500,000 tons over the previous year. This increase was due to a slight improvement in the iron trade, which for several years had been in a very low condition. The selling price, 17.03 francs (\$3.29) per ton, was 2.88 francs (56 cents) per ton less than for the preceding years. Two-thirds of the coal extracted is consumed in the department; the remaining third is exported to the neighboring departments, to Switzerland, and to Italy. The mines employ about 19,000 men. For the first six months of 1904 the total production of the mines of this region was 1,735,566 tons, a decrease of 112,000 tons from that of the same period of last year. The mines of Saône et Loire produced 694,623 tons and the Gard 731,016 tons.

ANKYLOSTOMIASIS.

While on the subject of coal mines, it may be not out of place to say a few words on miner's anemia due to the worm called *Ankylostoma*, which is occupying the attention of several European governments. The International Congress of Miners, held at Paris in August, 1904, and in which the American delegate received distinguished recognition, devoted an entire day to the discussion of the disease. Several reports were read and the meeting came to the conclusion that the governments of the contaminated countries (Austria, Germany, Belgium, France, etc.) should impose on mining companies sanitary measures necessary to the arrest of the propagation of the malady.

The history and nature of the disease was treated somewhat exhaustively in my report printed in Daily Consular Reports for August 31, 1904 (No. 2044). I have learned recently, however, that the same worm is found in some mines in the United States, introduced probably by foreign miners. There exists also an indigenous parasite differing only from the *Ankylostoma* of this country in the number of teeth or suckers, the former having five while the latter has four.

METALLURGY.

Metal working constitutes one of the most important branches of the industrial activity of the Loire. Its development, which dates from the beginning of the last century, has been continuous and now gives employment to about 35,000 men. The large mills at St. Etienne, St. Chamond, Rive de Gier, Unieux, Firminy, and Lorette manufacture Bessemer steel, chrome steel, Martin-Siemens steel, cast steel, puddled steel, gun carriages, marine anchors, cannons of every caliber, boilers, anvils, projectiles, plate, armor plate, rails, car wheels, agricultural implements, etc. The smaller mills turn out hardware of every description—locks, nails, bolts, scythes, files, etc., and give employment in normal times to about 8,000 workmen.

The iron industry has suffered a good deal from general depression for the last three or four years; mills have had to work on short time, and many workmen have been laid off. Signs of better times, however, have been apparent for the last six months; orders are coming in from foreign governments and private enterprises.

Imports and exports of iron ore, iron, and steel into and from France in the first six months of 1904.

Kind.	Imports.	Exports.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Iron ore.....	818, 220	566, 172
Iron.....	26, 266	111, 973
Steel.....	4, 761	106, 828

RIBBONS.

St. Etienne is in France the great market for ribbons as Lyon is for silks. The industry in all its branches employs about 100,000 people, of which number 18,000 work in their own homes and on their own looms. For the last two or three years the trade has been bad and prices very low, but the present season bids fair to be prosperous. Large orders are coming in from England, Germany, and the United States, so that all the looms are working, and as a natural consequence prices have gone up. The cause of the recent depression was largely due to the fickleness of fashion, and also to competition not only in Europe, but in the United States, where similar goods, closely equal in quality and finish, are capturing the trade formerly almost exclusively supplied by French weavers. At times during the dull years here the proportion of idle looms reached 60 per cent in the city; the country weavers were more favored as they worked at lower prices.

The amount of ribbons of all kinds declared for export through this consulate for the United States for the year ended June 30, 1904, was \$882,395, a decrease of \$186,497 from the previous year.

In certain parts of the department are silk factories which employ 3,500 hands.

Braids and laces form the chief industry of the neighboring town of St. Chamond. This manufacture gives employment to 12,000 persons and produces annually \$4,000,000 worth of goods.

ARMS.

St. Etienne enjoys a long-standing reputation for producing firearms. In 1869 the State built an important manufactory for military rifles which at one time employed 10,000 men, turning out 1,600 Lebel rifles a day. At present the personnel is much reduced, as the army is sufficiently equipped.

The private industry employs 4,000 men, and puts on the market 40,000 arms (sporting guns, revolvers, pistols) annually, valued at \$1,350,000. Hitherto sporting guns of French pattern have been practically unknown in the United States, but recently some sample shipments have been received with so much favor that further orders have been placed. Part of this success is attributed to the display made at the St. Louis Exposition by the St. Etienne manufacturers of small arms.

MINERAL WATERS.

France takes the first rank for the number, diversity, and quality of its mineral waters, and the department of the Loire is one of the most abundantly supplied of all France. It is estimated that 30,000,000 bottles are annually exported from the different sources of the depart-

ment, of which number St. Galmier furnishes 18,000,000 and Sail sous Couzan 7,500,000. The total value of these waters is estimated at \$1,000,000.

TRAMWAYS.

The departmental tramways serve the rural districts of France in a manner similar to our American electric extensions. They are equipped with small steam locomotives and light rolling stock, and usually connect the smaller towns with the cities. The routes followed are not direct but meander through the more populous sections. In the train service speed is a secondary consideration, and usually but from two to four mixed freight and passenger trains run each way a day.

With the development of certain sections, when a more adequate service will be required, electric traction will no doubt replace steam, but on many of the lines steam engines will be retained on account of the infrequency of the trips. The number of departmental tramways is rapidly increasing, and their service includes many hitherto out-of-the-way villages, formerly only to be reached by the enormous doubled-decked but picturesque stage coaches. New electric lines are being constructed in different sections of St. Etienne and in a few years the whole region will be supplied, though from an American point of view these things move slowly in France.

AMERICAN GOODS.

American goods of various kinds are getting rapidly into favor in this district. Hardware, stationery, agricultural tools, etc., can be had in the shops. I endeavored to get statistics on the subject, but they would be in no wise complete, as these goods are obtained generally from Paris, consequently any statistics I might obtain would be misleading.

What is necessary to the development of the American trade in France is a good agent in every large town, who would represent several American houses. The French people want to know and to see before buying.

HILARY S. BRUNOT, *Consul*.

ST. ETIENNE, FRANCE, *October 5, 1904.*

SMYRNA EXPORTERS TO THE UNITED STATES.

(From United States Consul Lane, Smyrna, Asia Minor.)

I have been requested by Bradstreet's Berlin office to provide it with a list of Smyrna exporters to the United States, together with the articles exported by each firm. As this list should be of general interest to American importers and exporters from and to Asia Minor, I transmit the same to the Department for such action as it may deem proper.

List of exporters to the United States at Smyrna, Asia Minor.

Exporters.	Articles exported.	Exporters.	Articles exported.
Athanassiades, J. E.	Fruit and soap.	Fachiri, Th.	Opium.
Avedikian Freres.	General merchandise.	Georgiades, D.	Figs and raisins.
Arachtingi, H. A., & Co.	Figs and raisins.	Giudici, Fd.	Do.
Anagnostopulo, A. J.	Raisins.	Griffitt, W., & Co.	Carpets.
Ansaldo & Co.	Fruit and emery stone.	Habif & Polako.	Do.
Angelopulo, Alex. C.	Figs and raisins.	Hamparzum, Aram.	Figs and raisins.
Aliotti, Albert.	Do.	Keun, Alfred A., & Co.	Opium, wool, and general merchandise.
American Tobacco Co.	Tobacco.	Lavino, A., & Co.	Do.
Bontor & Wells.	Carpets.	La Fontaine, Sydney.	Carpets.
Balladur, Fils de F.	Figs and raisins.	Mouamer Bey.	Raisins.
Barff, P. G. & Co. (Limited).	Do.	MacAndrews & Forbes.	Licorice root.
Brady & Koops.	Do.	Manola, John.	Figs.
Balabanoglou, Th.	Tobacco.	Magnifico, E. A.	Figs and emery stone.
Baltazzi, G. S., & Co.	Do.	Malnetty, J. M. P.	Figs and raisins.
Catrevas, Milton N.	Figs and raisins.	Marcopoli, G., & Fils.	Do.
Calenzo, John.	Tobacco.	Missir & Co.	Do.
Consinery, L.	Soap.	Papanicoli, E.	Tobacco.
Christides Brothers.	Figs and raisins.	Pirocaco, G.	Do.
Cohen, Efraim.	Do.	Paterson & Co.	Chrome ore.
Davee, F. J.	Figs, raisins, and emery stone.	Psychopoulos, A.	Figs and raisins.
Daponte, C., & Co.	Figs and raisins.	Protopazzi, C. J.	Do.
Dracopoli, Herm. P.	Do.	Reggio, Hubert, & Co.	Do.
De Andria, P., & Co.	Carpets.	Simonian, Simon O.	Do.
De Botton, Jacq.	Tobacco.	Stassinopulo, S. A.	Do.
Dell Grazie, Th., & Co.	Do.	Spartali, T. A., & Co.	Carpets.
Elmassian, Djanik.	Figs and raisins.	Veras, Tsolakides, & Co.	Figs and raisins.
Emmanuel, Al. C., & Co.	Do.	Vemian, A. K.	Figs, raisins, and opium.
Emayan, Lucas.	Opium.	Vassilacaki, Em. Th.	Figs and raisins.
Fidao, F., & Co.	Figs, raisins, and opium.	Whittall, C., & Co.	General merchandise.

RUFUS W. LANE, *Consul.*SMYRNA, ASIA MINOR, *October 15, 1904.*

TRADE IN ALEXANDRETTA, SYRIA.

(From United States' Consul Davis, Alexandretta, Syria.)

The foreign trade of this port, generally speaking, is on the increase, although the imports from the United States are about the same from year to year. The exports to the United States, mostly wool, embroideries, and licorice, have greatly increased the last year or two. It is urged that some enterprising business man establish here a general magazine of American goods, especially all those made from iron or steel, as this is one of the best entering and distributing points on the entire Mediterranean—is the entrepôt for thousands of square miles, reaching to the Euphrates and Tigris rivers. The general conditions of poverty among the people, lack of education, and lack of ambition to change their mode of living are hindrances to be overcome. But the field is worth attention, as it is not at all likely these conditions can long prevail when the country is crossed by the lines of railways now in contemplation. Banking facilities are carried on here by the Crédit Lyonnais and a branch of the Imperial Ottoman Bank. The rate of exchange fluctuates. It depends on Constantinople, but is generally \$4.48 for the lira, although the last quarter it was \$4.50. The dollar

is equivalent to 28.86 piasters; the Turkish pound, 127; the English, 139, and the Napoleon, 111. The rate of interest is 10 to 12 per cent.

WILLIAM ROSS DAVIS, *Consul*.

ALEXANDRETTA, SYRIA, *October 19, 1904.*

RAVAGES OF THE MINER'S WORM.

(*From United States Consul Brundage, Aix la Chapelle, Germany.*)

The coal mines in the district around Aix la Chapelle are so impregnated with the eggs of the miner's worm (*Ankylostoma duodenalis*) as to occasion great suffering to the miners and large expense to the operators in providing means for resisting its ravages. Thirty per cent of the miners in this vicinity are affected and in Westphalia as high as 60 per cent of the miners are suffering from the effects of the anemia caused by the worms. The first infection of the mines here came from a miner who had worked in the St. Gotthard tunnel. The dampness and slime in coal mines seem to be favorable for the development and multiplication of the worms, and as sulphuric water and gases seem to have no preventive effect it is a matter of extreme difficulty to eradicate them from the mine which has been once infected.

The worm is about 5 millimeters (0.197 inch) in length, and its ovum about 1 millimeter, that is, 0.0394 inch. It is believed to enter the system of the miner through his mouth or an open wound, and once in the system it fastens itself in the mucous membrane of the duodenum and produces an anemia so pronounced as to make a complete wreck of the man attacked. The disease is not considered fatal and when recognized a treatment with male fern tree or its oil is considered a specific. Because of the difficulty of freeing an infected mine of the worm, great care is taken by owners of mines to prevent its entry. In affected mines the methods adopted to prevent the spread of the worm consist largely in the enforcement of personal cleanliness on the miners. In a mine which I visited recently each miner on going to work was required to change his clothes. On returning from the mine a bath was required and his mining suit was thoroughly fumigated through the night. Weekly inspections were required of all miners, and upon any complaint of illness by a miner special examination was made.

Bergassessor Klemme, director Vereinigung-Gesellschaft, at Kohlscheid, has just completed a shaft on sound sanitary principles for all employees of that company whether working above or below ground, and inquiries from medical societies or others interested would probably be answered by him with technical information on the subject.

FRANK M. BRUNDAGE, *Consul*.

AIX LA CHAPELLE, GERMANY, *October 25, 1904.*

DRIED FRUITS IN CHINA

(From United States Consul Anderson, Hangchow, China.)

In response to an inquiry from a California fruiterer as to the possibilities of a market for American raisins in China, I submit the following:

So far as concerns the great mass of the Chinese people using American raisins and dried fruits generally, there is no hope for anything of the sort at present or for a long time in the future. Where the great mass of people live for less than 10 cents a day for each grown person, it is safe to say that it will be some time before they will use much in the way of raisins at from 4 to 10 cents a pound. However, there is a constantly increasing demand for American dried fruits, including raisins, among the foreign population of China and among the well-to-do Chinese.

American fruits, when they can be brought here at all, are generally superior to the Chinese fruit of the same sort, both because of superior horticulture and because of better means and methods of preparation. The use of dried peaches, apricots, and prunes is increasing, and it would increase in immense degree if the fruit people of the United States would put their products out in a form which would be convenient for consumers in this part of the world. There are a good many American raisins used here now, but they are shipped from California to New York and even to Europe and are there graded and packed in small cartons of a pound or 2 pounds and then sold to the trade in the Far East. This is true to a greater or less extent of dried peaches, prunes, apricots, dried cherries, and other dried fruits generally. It is also true in a marked degree of American canned fruits which are canned without labels, sent to the East or to Europe and there labeled with foreign marks and brands and sold as European goods. There is no reason why American goods should not be put out directly from where they are produced, and second-grade California fruit, the kind which finds its way to the Far East, if put out as exactly what it is, would command as good a price as it later brings as European goods, the middle profit going to the American producer and canner.

The market for raisins and other dried fruit and for canned fruit from the United States can be widened at once and very greatly by sending one or more representatives of the fruit interests here and by careful study of what is wanted and the way it is wanted. The needs of the people must be met exactly if the American fruit grower expects to succeed in competition with business men in other countries who are willing to cater to the trade as they find it and not as they want it. There would be an immediate opening for the sale of more American evaporated apples here if the packers in the United States would put

out goods in smaller packages and would push the trade a little. In all these lines, of course, there must be careful packing for the trans-Pacific voyage and for more or less storage here. Stocks are not turned over as rapidly here as in the United States and packers must take this into account. Protection from moisture and from pests are indispensable.

GEORGE E. ANDERSON, *Consul*.

HANGCHOW, CHINA, *October 15, 1904.*

AMERICAN GLASSWARE IN GERMANY.

(From United States Consul-General Wright, Munich, Germany.)

The introduction of American pressed glassware into Germany appears to be a very successful venture on the part of our manufacturers. A leading dealer of this city states that the demand is large and on the increase. According to the dealer quoted, this ware is particularly sought for table use by those who desire it for ordinary service in lieu of the more expensive and fragile cut glass.

American cut glass is also finding its way into these markets, and although somewhat more costly than the local article, its superiority can not be questioned. The American article is superior in brilliancy and finish and attractiveness of pattern.

The manufacture of porcelain and china ware in this country is one of the great industries, and the reputation of these wares is deservedly world-wide. The quality of the finer grades is superior, but the prices to the consumer are very high. Much of the product is exported to the United States, but the prices in America appear to be much lower than obtain here. Questioned regarding this difference, one large dealer of this city stated in explanation that the wares exported to the United States consisted mainly of seconds, and that these seconds found a ready market in our country because of the inability of our people to distinguish between the better grades. To my mind, however, this explanation is insufficient, and I have little doubt that the difference is due to the great desire of the German manufacturer to secure the American markets, and that to do so he finds it necessary to dispose of his goods at a much lower price than that which he insists upon receiving here, where he has comparatively little, if any, competition, and where, through trade agreements and combinations, he is enabled to maintain prices which must insure extremely large profits.

But few of the dealers here carry any stock. They rely upon catalogues and samples to secure orders from purchasers. After a dealer receives an order, the factory, often several hundred miles distant, is notified and after some time, usually a considerable period, the dealer

receives the wares from the factory and somewhat later the purchaser receives them from the dealer.

I am convinced that there is a large field for the American manufacturer in this country, if his goods are well introduced by means of illustrated catalogues or, better still, by competent agents carrying samples.

W. F. WRIGHT, *Consul-General*.

MUNICH, GERMANY, *October 27, 1904.*

COTTON IN AFRICA.

(From United States Consul-General Peters, St. Gall, Switzerland.)

German colonial enterprise in cotton, according to the report of the colonial agricultural committee, has made remarkable progress. Togo and German East Africa are now cotton-growing colonies. For the further development of the cultivation of the staple, the resolution passed in the Reichstag on the 16th of June, for the building of railways from Lome, Palime, and Daressalaam, Mrogo, is of the greatest importance. To make these railways adequate to their task of transporting the cotton crop, an automobile service, in connection with the railways and waterways, will be installed and building of roads and bridges will be at once taken in hand.

The fact that this year's Togo cotton crop required the employment of 8,300 natives for its cultivation and transportation to the coast shows that the industry has a capable labor-population, and, at the same time, a cheap means of transport at its command. The harvest was estimated at 1,000 bales of 500 pounds each. This estimate was surpassed both in quality and quantity, the quality corresponding to the better American kind.

A school has been established at Nuatschei for the study of cotton cultivation. It has 50 pupils, and the course of study occupies two years. The harvesting part of the course is under colored Americans. An experimental farm and purchasing station for cotton have been established at Tove under the direction of missionaries, who make experiments in growing and crossing all kinds of cotton plants. Not only this, but purchasing stations have been established all along the line of the railroad, making the delivery and shipment of the crop easier. With the help of the railroads and the well-planned and systematic work on the cotton farms of the government, communal associations, and those managed by the missionaries, success is assured.

Steam gins are already in operation in Tanga, Kilwa, and Daressalaam, and will be introduced in considerable numbers, in connection with the purchasing stations along the 230 kilometers (143 miles) of railroad. In the territory of Daressalaam every owner of a hut is

required to plant half an acre of cotton. As this region contains 28,000 huts and the natives willingly devote themselves to cotton growing, the output would seem to be an assured success. Up to the present time upward of 2,000 acres have been planted in this way.

Germany's example is followed by England, France, Belgium, and Italy. Of late Spain, Portugal, and the Netherlands have started cotton growing. Between the associations founded in these countries and the German committee a continual exchange of views, grounded on experience, takes place. This must lead to important results which will, in no long time, influence the American market.

The natural question which presents itself is, What is America to do to hold her position as the first cotton-growing country in the world? After reviewing the steps that other nations are taking, there can be no doubt that this position is in danger, perhaps not to-day or to-morrow, but certainly in the future. If not now doing it, it would seem that the United States must make a careful canvass of what the manufacturers of the world require in the raw material, and then bend every endeavor to satisfy them.

EGYPTIAN COTTON.

The use of the fine grade of Egyptian cotton in manufactures is well illustrated in the following table, compiled from Swiss statistics of 1903, showing the total cotton importation by the little Republic of Switzerland to have been 52,208,640 pounds in that year, of which the value was \$7,040,561.26.

Imports of raw cotton into Switzerland in 1903.

Country.	Quantity.	Country.	Quantity.
	<i>Pounds.</i>		<i>Pounds.</i>
Egypt.....	20,025,500	Asia and Turkey.....	117,480
British India.....	2,977,700	Central America.....	80,080
Lower India.....	61,820	China.....	32,120
United States.....	28,864,660		
Chile and Peru.....	49,280	Total.....	52,208,640

The average value of Egyptian cotton is 13.32 cents per pound, and that of all other cotton is 10.48 cents per pound. The Egyptian grade commands 23.6 per cent greater price per pound than any other cotton. Thus Egypt furnished 5,861,460 pounds less than the United States, but received, according to the average price, \$38,016.16 more for its crop.

We can not expect to turn all our American cotton into the Egyptian species, nor would we if we could, but certainly a greater cultivation of the high-grade Egyptian cotton is advisable, and I am glad to see that it is possible. The report of the Secretary of Agriculture for 1901 says that Egyptian cotton was experimented with in Georgia

with very encouraging results. The Agricultural Department has pointed out the way; I only trust the planters will take advantage of it and increase the production. It is a peculiar fact, and one worthy of notice, that the country which produced the typewriter purchases in Europe largely its cotton cloth from which typewriting ribbons are made. This cloth must be carefully woven, and is of very fine texture, made generally from very high-grade Egyptian cotton. Invoices of considerable value of this cloth are shipped every year to the United States from the St. Gall district. Our planters, spinners, and weavers should look to it that the home demand for this article at least is supplied by our own mills.

THOMAS WILLING PETERS, *Consul-General*.

ST. GALL, SWITZERLAND, *October 20, 1904.*

NOTES.

Lack of Railway Rolling Stock in Germany.—For some time past complaints have appeared in the German newspapers of the insufficiency of railway accommodation. The trains are mostly overcrowded and the present number of cars is decidedly short. There is little doubt that the governments of the different German States will take steps to supply the necessary cars, which should afford American builders an opportunity to compete. Practically all the German railroads are in the hands of the Government, and are controlled by a special minister, to whom all inquiries should be addressed.—*William F. Wright, Consul-General, Munich, Germany, October 29, 1904.*

Prohibition of Venezuelan-Colombian Boundary Trade.—The Official Gazette of October 26, 1904, contains a decree by which all traffic is again stopped on the Colombian boundary, from Encontrados to Puerto Villamigar, on account of the fact that revolutionists are able to escape from one country to the other too easily. Traffic must now go via Uraca, Colon, and Urena, which is a roundabout way. This notice is important to shippers of coffee.—*Norman Hutchinson, Secretary of Legation, Caracas, Venezuela, October 29, 1904.*

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

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DECEMBER 12, 1904

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THE WORLD'S SILK PRODUCTION.

(From United States Consul Covert, Lyon, France.)

The Silk Dealers' Association of Lyon has just published an elaborate report on the world's production of silk in 1903, from which I condense the most important items.

FRANCE.

The quantity of graines hatched in France in 1903 was 182,712 ounces. The average production for the last ten years was 207,594 ounces, the average from native cocoons being 198,447 ounces. The report says:

We are unfortunately compelled to declare again that the French silk production, far from progressing, loses importance every year. We must not, however, draw conclusions too pessimistic from the decrease in the quantity of seeds put to hatch in 1903, a decrease due, in our opinion, to causes entirely temporary or accidental. We must not forget that the frost of the 19th of April, in completely destroying the leaves in many places, caused a profound discouragement among the breeders of silkworms, and that many among them who had not yet put their graines to hatch preferred to throw them away in the fear of being compelled to pay too high a price for leaves. From that fact there was a sensible deficit, which will not occur another time.

The temperature had been normal during the first fortnight of April, and the graines had been placed in incubation at the usual time in the warm regions. But after the 15th the weather turned suddenly cold, and on the night of the 19th there was a disastrous frost, such as had not occurred since April 15, 1876. The leaves were totally destroyed in a number of regions. The effects were especially disastrous in the countries where warm weather was expected—in the Bouches du Rhône, le Var, les Basses Cevennes, and the valley of the Rhône. Some other regions, where the summer is usually backward, largely or entirely escaped damage. Later in the summer there was exceptional heat, which was unfavorable to the proper development of the leaves, and the "educators" complained during the entire summer of unfavorable conditions.

In 1903, according to the minister of commerce, 5,985,481 kilograms (13,195,591 pounds) of fresh cocoons were raised, against 7,287,541 kilograms (16,066,109 pounds) in 1902. The average annual production in the ten preceding years was 8,575,738 kilograms (18,906,072 pounds). There were exported, during 1903, 25,800 kilograms (56,878

pounds) of graines of silkworms. The number of silkworm breeders engaged in the business was 120,266, which is 7,933 less than the number so engaged in 1902, and 16,811 less than the average number so engaged during the last decade, which was 137,077.

ITALY.

In Italy there was also a decline in 1903 as compared with 1902. The production of cocoons in 1903 was 44,100,000 kilograms (97,222,860 pounds), against 56,000,000 kilograms (123,457,600 pounds) in the previous year. The quantity of raw silk obtained from cocoons raised in Italy was 3,526,000 kilograms (7,773,419 pounds); the total product of the silk mills, including that derived from imported cocoons, was 4,535,000 kilograms (9,997,861 pounds). The quantity of seeds hatched in 1903 was 1,241,000 ounces, divided as follows among the different races: Pure yellow and white, native, 140,000 ounces; pure yellow and white, imported, 100,000 ounces; crossed yellow cocoons, 700,000 ounces; Japanese or Chinese cocoons, white or green, with their different cross breeds, 300,000 ounces; imported Japanese white and green cocoons, 1,000 ounces. The annual average of cocoons hatched in the peninsula during the decade was 976,400 ounces, which shows that in the last year the business increased something over 21 per cent. The increase in the quantity of graines hatched in 1903 was exclusively in white and green crossed cocoons. The pure yellow and white race and the races crossed with yellow cocoons lost ground considerably.

The production of fresh cocoons in 1903 is estimated by the silk association of Milan at 34,167,000 kilograms (75,324,568 pounds), and the mean annual production for the decade at 41,720,900 kilograms (91,977,896 pounds). The production of 1903 was therefore 7,768,000 kilograms (17,125,333 pounds) less than that of 1902. There was nearly as great a decline from the average production for the decade. A table shows that the yield per ounce of graines has been gradually declining for a number of years.

The report estimates the quantity of raw silk produced in the Peninsula in 1903 at 2,746,500 kilograms (6,054,933 pounds), which is 571,500 kilograms (1,259,929 pounds) less than that of 1902, and 505,900 kilograms (1,115,307 pounds) less than the average product of the last ten years.

SPAIN.

The production of silk in Spain in 1903 was 1,100,000 kilograms (2,425,060 pounds), as compared to 1,010,000 kilograms (2,226,646 pounds) in 1902.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

The yield of cocoons in the southern Tyrol was considerably below that of 1902, being but 1,170,000 kilograms (2,579,382 pounds). The

average for five years previous was 1,525,000 kilograms (3,362,015 pounds). The Austrian Government has given a bounty to silk raisers, in imitation of France, but the result has not been at all satisfactory; the people can make more money with their land in raising grapes and other fruit. Eighty per cent of the cocoons used were of the crossed races, and only 20 per cent of the yellow.

The production of cocoons in Hungary in 1903 was 1,707,205 kilograms (3,763,704.14 pounds) compared with 1,342,125 kilograms (2,958,848.77 pounds) in 1902, an increase of 27.2 per cent. The planting of mulberry groves increased in the same proportion, the Government distributing young plants gratuitously. There are five reeling mills in activity in Hungary, containing 666 bassines. Two others are in course of construction and will be in operation in two years. The total product of the country in 1903 was 3,263,800 kilograms (7,195,373 pounds) of cocoons, yielding 275,000 kilograms (606,265 pounds) of raw silk. This is an important increase over any previous year:

THE LEVANT.

The notes and documents concerning silk raising in the Levant were obtained from the French Chamber of Commerce of Constantinople. For Brusa and Anatolia the figures were taken from the statistics of an official document called the Administration of Dette Publique Ottomane. The report says:

The Silk Institute of Brusa, which has contributed in so great a measure to the production of healthy seeds (graines) and to the regeneration of sericulture, not only in Brusa and in Anatolia, but in all the Levant, in Persia, and in Central Asia, exports annually a large quantity of seeds to foreign countries. However, that exportation, which reached 457,520 ounces in 1901, fell to 359,862 in 1902, and to 304,989 in 1903, a decline of 150,000 ounces in two years. This reduction was largely in purchases from Persia and Russia, which countries in all probability are producing their own seeds.

SYRIA.

The quantity of graines hatched in Syria in 1903 was about the same as in the preceding year—from 220,000 to 230,000 ounces—nearly all purchased by France. From 10 to 15 per cent were from native seeds, but the tendency is to diminish the use of native graines yearly, as they are very unsatisfactory. The production of fresh cocoons amounted to about 4,315,000 okes^a (12,195,406 pounds). The report asserts that sericulture in Syria is not likely to progress so rapidly in the future as it has in the past. In Lebanon the whole country is covered with mulberry plantations, but hands are scarce, owing to the emigration of the working classes. In the interior of the country means of

^a The Syrian oke = 1.282 kilograms.

transportation are lacking, and the taxes amount almost to confiscation of the harvests. The 5,532,000 kilograms (12,195,847 pounds) of cocoons produced in Syria in 1903 yielded 510,000 kilograms (1,224,646 pounds) of raw silk. The native weavers of Beirut, Aleppo, and Damascus use little else than the strong silk of China for the manufacture of goods for local consumption. Thus, in 1903-4, 1,254 bales of silk, representing about 75,000 kilograms (165,345 pounds), were imported from Shanghai to Beirut and Tripoli.

Almost the total product of Syria is exported to Europe, principally to France, in the form of raw silk and dry cocoons. On account of the deficit in the yield in France and Italy in 1903 the exportation of dry cocoons was greater in 1903-4 than in the previous year.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

The quantity of graines hatched in Salonica was almost the same as in the previous year—47,000 ounces, of which 30,000 ounces were purchased by France. The yield was very good, being 1,860,200 kilograms (3,766,161 pounds), compared to 1,559,098 kilograms (3,436,987 pounds) in 1902.

THE BALKAN STATES.

Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia.—The 29,585 ounces of worms hatched in the Balkan States produced 1,281,172 kilograms (2,824,472 pounds) of silk, slightly more than in the preceding year, with a marked improvement in the quality. The bulk of the product of Bulgaria is exported to France and Italy in the shape of dry cocoons. The surplus is reeled in a mill at Stanimaka, the only reeling mill in the country. The amount reeled in this mill in the two years was 190,000 kilograms (418,874 pounds) in 1902 and 220,000 kilograms (485,012 pounds) in 1903.

In southern Bulgaria, where the climate is very favorable, the white race of cocoons is principally raised, and with more capital and good business management the yearly product of silk from this quarter would be very large.

Servia.—The Silk Raisers' Association of Servia sends to the society of Lyon a report from which I glean a few items:

The principal business place of the association is in Belgrade. The Servian Government distributes free seeds or graines to the natives who engage in the business. The product has increased rapidly since 1895, the first year of which there is any report. In that year the quantity of cocoons raised was 1,561 kilograms (3,441 pounds), while in 1903 the yield was 153,971 kilograms (339,444 pounds). In 1903, 22,000 boxes of graines were distributed to the worm raisers, each box containing 10 grams, but as the April frosts had destroyed the mulberry leaves in many places, only 15,386 boxes were incubated.

Roumania.—The Government has made a persevering effort to encourage the production of raw silk and cocoons in Roumania, but

without much success; it is difficult to overcome the apathy and inertia of the peasants. A French syndicate for the production of cocoons is in formation in Bukharest, and it is expected that this company will materially develop the industry in a short time. The quantity of graines hatched was 5,500 ounces, producing about 120,000 kilograms (264,552 pounds).

The production of raw silk and cocoons in the Balkan States in 1903 was:

Production of cocoons and raw silk in the Balkan States in 1903.

State.	Pounds of cocoons.	Pounds of raw silk.
Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia	2,824,471	250,443
Servia	339,444	28,219
Roumania	238,529	21,164
Total	3,417,444	299,826

GREECE AND CRETE.

The figures for these countries are taken from a report written by the French consul at Volo. He says that during the first half of the last century silk culture reached its highest prosperity in Greece, including Thessaly, then an integral part of the Ottoman Empire. The annual production of cocoons then reached 2,000,000 kilograms (4,409,245 pounds). After the appearance of the pebrine in 1854 the annual product fell to 200,000 kilograms (440,924 pounds). After the discoveries of Pasteur the production was increased, and now reaches about 500,000 kilograms (1,102,311 pounds).

Thessaly uses annually about 7,000 or 8,000 boxes of graines. The graines from Brusa and Smyrna are the most popular. Certain varieties from Italy and France are purchased, but the tendency is to drop them and to depend entirely upon native graines. From information received from the French Chamber of Commerce in Athens, the yield for 1903 in Thessaly was very satisfactory. It was over 110,000 okes of dry cocoons, or 959,010 pounds of fresh cocoons. There is only one reeling mill in Thessaly, but the report expresses the opinion that others will be soon established.

The product of Greece is nearly all exported to France, in the shape of raw silk or cocoons. The average exportation from Greece to France of raw silk during the last five years was 38,000 kilograms (83,775 pounds), to which should be added a few thousand kilograms exported to Italy and England.

In the island of Crete the product varies but little from year to year, averaging about 10,000 ounces.

The product of the island of Cyprus is comprehended in that of Syria.

In the island of Rhodes 800 ounces were hatched, most of the graines having been purchased in Corsica and the Department of the Var in France.

CAUCASUS AND TRANSCAUCASUS.

In the Caucasus and Transcaucasus the product has increased during the last few years on account of the employment of better graines, those from Brusa, selected with care, having been generally used. Owing to bad weather, the yield fell from 465,000 kilograms (1,025,139 pounds) in 1902 to about 400,000 kilograms (881,840 pounds) in 1903. Of this amount 213,000 kilograms (469,580 pounds) were consumed in Moscow. The average production during the last five years was 359,000 kilograms (791,451 pounds).

PERSIA.

During the year 1903-4, 23,000 bales of dry cocoons were exported from Persia. These represented 1,500,000 kilograms (3,306,900 pounds), against 911,300 kilograms (2,009,052 pounds) in the preceding year. The exports last year were larger than for any previous year shown in the report, and were nearly all purchased by France. The cocoons were below the average in quality, and the production of silk was not so great.

TURKESTAN.

The yield in Turkestan in 1903 was about 3,000,000 kilograms (6,613,800 pounds) of fresh cocoons, which represent 1,000,000 kilograms (2,204,600 pounds) of dry cocoons, 825,000 kilograms (1,818,795 pounds) of which were from Samarkand.

CHINA.

The exports of raw silk from Shanghai during the year ended May 31, 1904, were 73,980 bales (tussah silk included), compared to 59,391 bales in the previous year.

Exports of raw silk from Shanghai in the years ended May 31, 1903 and 1904.

Destination.	1903.	1904.
	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>
France	19,946	21,896
England	1,037	1,808
Italy and Switzerland	6,700	7,977
United States (New York and San Francisco)	12,375	11,573
India (Bombay and Singapore)	2,634	4,383
Egypt (Suez, Alexandria, and Port Said)	1,299	2,500
Syria (Tripoli and Beirut)	393	1,255
China coasts (Hongkong and other ports)	2,283	2,068
Japan	50	40
Yellow and white silks	46,717	52,500
Tussah silk	12,674	21,480
Total	59,391	73,980

The total exportations from Canton were 43,437 kilograms (95,761 pounds). There remained 1,500 bales unsold on May 31, 1904.

JAPAN.

The exports of raw silk from Japan during the year ended June 30, 1904, were 74,688 bales, of a total weight of 4,608,000 kilograms, or 10,158,797 pounds, as follows: France, 18,959 bales; England, 22 bales; Italy, 5,412 bales; Russia, 424 bales; total for Europe, 24,817 bales; the United States, 49,871 bales; total exports, 74,688 bales.

The stock unsold on June 30, 1904, was as follows: Reeling (filatures), 273,066 pounds; redivided (rediveides), 19,200 pounds; kade-dah, 4,400 pounds; total, 296,666 pounds, against 170,400 pounds on June 30, 1903.

BRITISH INDIA.

In 1903 the exports of raw silk from Bengal amounted to 3,141 bales (245,000 kilograms, 540,127 pounds), a slight increase over the average of the preceding five years, except 1902.

JOHN C. COVERT, *Consul*.

LYON, FRANCE, *October 15, 1904.*

Imports of silk manufactures and raw silk into the United States.^a

Year.	Silk manu- factures.	Raw silk.	
		Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1880.....	7,918,584		
1840.....	9,601,522		
1850.....	17,639,624		
1851.....	25,777,245		
1852.....	21,651,752		
1853.....	30,434,886		
1854.....	34,696,831		
1855.....	24,366,556		
1856.....	30,226,532		
1857.....	27,800,319		
1858.....	21,105,454		
1859.....	27,833,144		
1860.....	32,726,134		
1861.....	22,516,709		
1862.....	7,584,448		
1863.....	12,836,434		
1864.....	20,588,974	407,935	
1865.....	22,573,582	288,286	
1866.....	30,842,393	567,904	
1867.....	26,164,007	491,983	
1868.....	16,570,083	512,449	
1869.....	22,333,600	720,045	
1870.....	23,904,048	583,589	
1871.....	32,341,001	1,100,281	
1872.....	36,448,618	1,063,809	
1873.....	29,890,035	1,159,420	
1874.....	23,996,782	794,837	
1875.....	24,380,923	1,101,681	
1876.....	28,745,967	1,354,991	
1877.....	21,830,159	1,186,170	
1878.....	19,837,972	1,182,750	
1879.....	24,013,398	1,889,776	
1880.....	32,188,690	2,562,236	
1881.....	32,056,701	2,790,413	
1882.....	38,985,167	3,221,259	

^a From data of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

Imports of silk manufactures and raw silk into the United States—Continued.

Year.	Silk manu- factures.	Raw silk.	
		Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1883.....	36,764,276	4,209,015	
1884.....	36,673,646	3,839,259	
1885.....	27,467,565	4,085,737	
1886.....	27,957,939	6,366,370	
1887.....	31,347,923	5,487,799	
1888.....	33,350,999	6,916,158	
1889.....	35,122,766	6,551,537	
1890.....	39,686,374	7,347,909	
1891.....	37,880,143	6,184,576	
1892.....	31,172,894	8,642,828	
1893.....	38,958,928	8,310,548	29,725,949
1894.....	24,811,773	5,720,681	16,121,797
1895.....	31,206,002	8,995,839	22,487,014
1896.....	26,652,768	9,084,920	26,650,528
1897.....	25,199,067	7,993,444	18,918,288
1898.....	23,523,665	12,077,459	31,106,057
1899.....	25,109,074	11,236,846	32,477,339
1900.....	30,894,373	15,043,714	45,311,525
1901.....	26,842,138	10,405,423	30,051,226
1902.....	32,640,242	14,230,708	42,633,656
1903.....	35,963,552	15,270,600	50,010,892
1904.....	31,973,680	16,692,950	46,089,803

Manufacture of silk in the United States, 1850 to 1900.^a

Items.	1850.	1860.	1870.	1880.	1890.	1900.
Establishments.....number..	67	139	86	382	472	483
Capital.....dollars.	678,300	2,926,980	6,231,130	19,125,300	51,007,537	81,082,201
Salaries officials, clerks, etc., number.....	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	1,581	2,657
Salaries.....dollars.	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	1,917,877	3,134,352
Wage-earners, average num- ber.....	1,723	5,485	6,649	31,337	49,382	65,416
Total wages.....dollars.	297,416	1,050,224	1,942,286	9,146,705	17,762,441	20,982,194
Miscellaneous expenses, dollars.....	(d)	(d)	(d)		4,259,623	10,264,206
Cost of materials used, dollars.....	1,093,860	3,901,777	7,817,559	22,467,701	51,004,425	62,406,665
Value of products.....dollars.	1,809,476	6,607,771	12,210,662	41,033,045	87,298,454	107,256,258
Raw silk used.....pounds.		462,965	684,488	2,690,482	6,376,881	9,760,770

^a From data of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.^b Not separately reported.^c Includes proprietors and firm members.^d Not reported.

PANAMA'S COMMERCE.

(From United States Vice-Consul-General Ehrman, Panama City, Panama.)

INCREASE IN TRADE.

During the past twelve months there has been a decided advance in all branches and lines of business in Panama, and both imports and exports have crept forward to something like the figures of five or six years ago, before the civil struggles broke out in the different sections of Colombia, during which period both the import and the export trade fell off 60 to 70 per cent. Now, however, there seems to be an upward tendency on all sides. This business movement is to a great extent

prompted by the anticipated activities on the Panama Canal, which will bring people and money to the Isthmus; but Panama is naturally a rich country.

NATURAL RESOURCES.

Gold, silver, and manganese are mined, and it is claimed that very good steam coal can be found in the Republic. Rubber, ipecac, ivory nuts, sarsaparilla, and balsam abound. The trade in hard woods, such as mahogany, cocobolo, and dyewoods, is being daily developed.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF WOODS.

One American firm here has shipped to the United States during the past seven months 1,500,000 feet of mahogany. This Republic has an almost inexhaustible supply of hard woods, and the near future promises a large development herein. While these woods are being shipped from Panama, there is a large demand here for building lumber. Much pine and redwood are imported from the United States, the greater part coming from Louisiana, Alabama, and Florida, and some from California. There is great demand, and, as is the case on all building material, the prices are high.

PEARL INDUSTRY.

It is impossible to get a correct idea of the pearl industry of this section, since no accounts are kept of the fisheries, and shipments are made by parcel post, and as specie, etc. The pearls are sent principally to Paris, with some few to the United States. Panama pearls bring good prices. They are very fine and have a good name in the pearl market. Large quantities of mother-of-pearl shell go to London and European cities, but the shipments to the United States have greatly diminished in the last few years.

GENERAL IMPORTS.

Statistical statements of imports are almost impossible to procure here. The bulk of the goods comes from the United States and almost every article in general use by civilized people is imported—shoes, hats, underwear, collars, clothes, cotton prints, stationery, hardware, naval stores, drugs, machinery of different kinds, etc. In regard to wearing apparel, I wish to emphasize the demand for cheap clothes. The high-priced article, as an American understands the term, will not find a market on the Isthmus, but there is a market here for cheap clothing.

AMERICAN SHOES.

American shoes, for men, seem to be extremely popular. Several enterprising manufacturers have established agencies here and seem

to be doing a good business. Women's shoes made in the United States, unless the makers have investigated the requirements of this market, generally fail to meet the popular demand from the fact that they are not high enough in the instep. They are also considered too light and the soles too thin. The Spanish women have small feet and very high insteps.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Wharfage.—There have been no improvements in the wharfage in this port since my last report. All the shipping comes via the La Boca wharf, located at Ancon, Canal Zone. Here all vessels, except the small coasters, dock and load and discharge their cargoes.

Postage.—The postage rates are the regular rates established by the Postal Union. The only stamps now in use are from the 1-cent to the 10-cent stamp (1c., 2c., 5c., 10c.). These are surcharged^d Colombian stamps, formerly used for the Department of Panama.

Coast trade.—The trading on the west coast is done almost exclusively by small sailing vessels. The Pacific Steam Navigation Company maintains a line of steamers along the coast that transport cattle and some passengers, but the trade is light and of little consequence.

Ocean transportation.—No new transportation companies have been established. The vessels of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company and the South American Company ply to the south, and those of the Pacific Mail to and from San Francisco. An attempt is being made by capitalists in Peru and Hongkong to establish a line of steamers from Hongkong to Callao, Peru, via Panama, but so far only two vessels have come into this port.

Ice and electric plants.—A company has been established in Panama, under the name of The Panama-American Corporation, incorporated in New Jersey with a capital of \$200,000, to erect an electric plant to supply the city with lights and an ice plant. The present light plant is very poor and the lights uncertain. The present ice plant is also uncertain in its output.

CURRENCY.

The new currency of the Republic is soon to be introduced. In fact, some few of the coins have been received for approval. It is understood that the Colombian coins will soon be gradually withdrawn and the new ones put into circulation. The monetary unit is the gold "balboa," which, although none will be coined, is the basis of the system and equal to one dollar United States gold. One-half of one balboa is equal to one "peso" silver; one-fourth balboa is equal to 50 cents silver. In brief, the balboa corresponds to the American dollar, and the Panama silver is to be worth 50 per cent of the gold value.

SHIPPING TONNAGE.

During the year there was brought to Panama from the west coast of South America by the vessels of the Pacific Steam Navigation Company and the South American Company about 28,000 tons of cargo, for local use and for transit across the Isthmus. These same lines have carried out of this port about 50,000 tons, brought here from all points. The Pacific Mail Steamship Company has carried out of Panama approximately 40,000 tons of cargo from New York destined for San Francisco and brought 32,000 to 35,000 tons from San Francisco for New York. During the past ten months there has been brought from San Francisco for Panama by the Pacific Mail Steamship Company local cargo amounting to not more than 5,000 tons.

FELIX EHRMAN, *Vice-Consul-General.*

PANAMA CITY, PANAMA, *October 22, 1904.*

NOTE BY BUREAU OF STATISTICS.—The imports from Panama into the United States in the year ended June 30, 1904, were valued at \$440,744, and the exports from the United States to Panama were valued at \$979,724.

AMERICAN GOODS FOR ST. HELENA.

(*From United States Consul Pooley, St. Helena.*)

With reference to circular letter from the Department dated August 4 last, I am of opinion that a moderate amount of trade might be done between St. Helena and the United States if one or more of our American merchants or manufacturers would initiate the business by sending every year a small cargo or two of such goods as are noted in the following list, many of which, although appearing in the official returns of this colony as imports from London, Cape Town, etc., really had their origin in America:

Agricultural implements and dairy supplies; beef and pork (tierces and barrels), beef tongues; bread, hard, navy, and pilot; fancy biscuits, soda crackers; bacon; baking powder; beans, white and brown; boots and shoes and rubbers; butter and margarin; codfish in drums; corn; corn brooms and whisks; clocks and watches; cheese; canned meats, oysters, and fruits; calico and muslins (gray and white); denims; spool thread; cigarettes and cigars (duty 25 cents per pound); drugs and perfumery; earthen and glass ware; furniture—chairs, rockers, bedroom suites, etc.; flour—bakers', and for domestic use (barrels and half barrels); grain—barley, wheat, oats, chicken feed, etc.; hardware—locks, wire nails, horseshoes, carpenters' tools, axes, hatchets; hams; beef and pork, dried; herrings, smoked; kerosene (150° test); lamps and lamp fittings, shades, and chimneys; lard in cans, various; cottolene in cans, 5 and 10 pounds; lumber—cypress, in 1-inch boards and joists 2 by 4 and 3 by 4; meal—linseed and cotton-seed, oil cake; oars, ash, 12 to 18 feet; organs; sewing machines; tobacco, Cavendish, 10 plugs to

pound, also cut (duty 25 cents per pound); tubs, pails, and trunks in nests; wire sieves; wheelbarrows; step ladders; "Yankee notions"; kitchen requisites.

ROBERT P. POOLEY, *Consul*.

ST. HELENA, *October 7, 1904.*

AMERICAN TRADE WITH IRELAND.

(From United States Acting Consul Platt, Dublin, Ireland.)

IMPORTS INTO DUBLIN IN 1903.

During the year ended December 31, 1903, 7,648 vessels of 2,020,456 tons entered at the port of Dublin. Of this number 390 vessels of 373,939 tons were engaged in the foreign trade and 7,258 vessels of 1,646,517 tons were engaged in the coasting trade. There were also 193 vessels of 175,277 tons inward and 25 vessels of 14,067 tons outward that called and discharged part cargoes, all of which were engaged in the foreign trade.

In the foreign trade 144 vessels of 167,271 tons cleared, and in the coasting trade 4,530 vessels of 1,220,734 tons cleared, or a total of 4,674 vessels of 1,388,005 tons. The total tonnage entering was slightly in excess of that of last year, while the total tonnage clearing was slightly less.

Imports still come principally by way of British ports, and of these only the gross weights are kept in the form of statistics, no mention being made of the values. From these statistics it appears that the principal imports into Dublin in 1903, in round figures, were as follows, the quantities given being in tons: Apples and pears, 2,500; bacon, 20,000; barley, 14,000; basic slag, 2,000; boards (flooring), 16,500; bottles, 4,600; bran and pollard, 18,500; bricks, 16,000; butter, 1,100; candles, 1,600; cement, 37,000; coal, 1,000,000; confectionery, 2,200; cotton-seed cake, 2,500; deals, 70,000; earthenware, 3,000; farming implements, 1,000; fire-clay goods, 5,300; flour, 70,000; fruit, dried, 2,000; fruit, preserved, 2,000; furniture, 2,500; glass, 4,300; gypsum, 4,000; haberdashery, 8,000; hams, 1,000; hardware, 5,000; Indian corn, 77,000; iron (castings), 11,600; iron, wrought, 22,000; iron, other kinds, 10,000; jute, 1,600; lead, 2,500; linseed cake, 8,500; machinery, 6,800; malt, 50,000; manure (artificial), 20,000; common, 1,300; nails and screws, 2,000; oil, 11,000; petroleum, 28,000; paper, 17,000; phosphate rock, 35,500; pickles, 561; potatoes, 6,000; preserves, 1,700; railway plant, 7,000; railway sleepers, 15,000; salt, 9,000; shoes, 3,000; slates, 16,500; soap, 2,300; soda, 3,700; spokes, 25,000; staves, 6,600; sugar, 35,000; sulphur ore, 16,000; tea, 5,700; timber, 30,000; tobacco, 2,000; wheat, 98,000; wheels, 2,600; whisky, 1,400.

HOW TO INCREASE AMERICAN TRADE.

A large proportion of the foreign imports comes from the United States, especially the barley, flour, maize, petroleum, slates, wheat, agricultural and other machinery, paper, etc., and this would be much increased if our exporters would cultivate a more direct trade, instead of shipping their goods to British houses for distribution. It must be remembered that Ireland is not a part of England, geographically or commercially, and that it is a mistake to treat it as if it were. While through-freight rates are high enough, local rates are almost prohibitive, and this fact must be taken into consideration by anyone who wishes to do business in this country. If trade is to be increased business arrangements will have to be made with local houses direct and not through British houses. The high railway rates alone eat up enough of the margin for profits, without further dividing it among many middlemen.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

For the year ended June 30, 1904, the principal exports from Dublin to the United States were, in round figures, of the following values: Ale, \$95,000; calfskins, \$15,000; feathers, \$15,000; gin, \$12,000; hides, neat, \$73,000; lace and crochet work, \$11,000; mineral waters (aerated), \$196,000; oatmeal, \$10,000; tobacco pipes, \$3,000; sausage casings, \$11,000; stout, \$494,000; whisky, \$43,000; and wines, \$18,000.

ARTHUR DONN PIATT, *Acting Consul.*

DUBLIN, IRELAND, *October 31, 1904.*

NOTES.

Municipalization in Leicester, England.—An important public improvement this year in Leicester is the installation of an electric street-car system in place of the horse-drawn cars. The old system extended 9 miles; the new lines, when completed, will cover 42 miles. The greater part is now equipped with overhead trolleys and is open to the public. It is a municipal undertaking. The largest tramway junction in the United Kingdom is at the clock tower, whence five sets of double track radiate. The fare from this point to any other on the line is 1 penny (2 cents), which pays for a journey, in some cases, of nearly 3 miles. The total cost of the system will be about \$3,250,000. For the first half of 1904 the net profits of the municipal gas works were \$110,000; of the electric light works, \$12,500, and of the water-works, \$44,000. All this surplus goes to reduce taxes or to benefit the public in other ways.—*Frank W. Mahin, Consul, Nottingham, England, October 31, 1904.*

Wheat Harvest of France.—The wheat harvest of France is estimated by the minister of agriculture at about 296,600,000 bushels, or some 60,000,000 bushels less than in 1903. With the exception of 1897, this year's yield is less than that of any year within the past decade, but is somewhat ameliorated by the good quality of the grain. Still, even with the reserves of the harvest of 1903, there is not enough for home consumption. After most elaborate and careful calculation *Réforme Économique* concludes that between the harvests of 1904 and 1905 some 24,120,000 bushels must be imported. As a general rule, when this country imports, the price varies little, but the short harvests in most countries cause some fear at present. Dryness in the basin of the Danube and too much rain in Roumania, Bulgaria, and Servia have caused a greatly reduced yield, while for different reasons the crop is deficient in England, Canada, the United States, and Russia. Those countries which have failed to raise enough for their own consumption will pay dearly for what they need.—*Thornwell Haynes, Consul, Rouen, France, October 31, 1904.*

Purchase of the Port of La Plata by Argentina.—By a law approved by Congress on September 24, 1904, the Executive is authorized to acquire of the government of the province of Buenos Aires the port of La Plata, with all its lands, installations, and accessories, for the use of the nation, the latter having, by way of compensation, to assume a part of the external debt of the province, with interest at 4 per cent and one-half per cent amortization, to the amount of 11,871,000 pesos gold (\$11,455,515 United States currency). The transfer of the port does not imply the recognition as of private property of the lands and existing installations in the possession of private persons without legal title; and, on the contrary, the province will transfer to the nation all its privileges, rights, and shares to be disposed of upon the occasion and in the form and manner that may be deemed convenient. The formal transfer is to take place on October 9.—*A. M. Beaupré, Minister, Buenos Aires, Argentina, October 5, 1904.*

Cotton Industry of France.—The number of looms in France manufacturing both bleached and colored goods is estimated at about 106,000, of which Normandy has 27,000, Vosges, 56,000, and the region of the Rhone, 15,000. Previous to the tariff of 1892 the number of looms in France was barely 75,000. The country has some 6,150,000 spindles, of which Normandy, Nord, and Vosges possess 1,750,000, 2,200,000, and 2,100,000, respectively, the whole consuming about 165,000 tons of American cotton, 23,000 tons of Egyptian cotton, and 17,000 tons of Indian cotton annually.—*Thornwell Haynes, Consul, Rouen, France, October 31, 1904.*

Transportation in England.—The complaint of high local railway freight charges causes a discussion of greater utilization of British canals. They have a total length of 3,900 miles, but unfortunately the railways control 1,200 miles thereof, and none of the canals can carry boats of as much as 100 tons. Continental canals, it is said, will carry boats of 1,000 tons. The British canals are so well distributed that practically every important town has direct water connection with the seaboard. It is demanded that these waterways be made serviceable as competitors of the railways.

Electric tramways, though slow in coming, are now rapidly spreading over the Kingdom. The investment in them at present amounts to about \$200,000,000—more than half by municipalities. The extension of tramways, by conveying workmen cheaply to suburban homes, is credited by some observers with the recent decrease in sales of beer, which has been generally attributed to the hard times.—*Frank W. Mahin, Consul, Nottingham, England, October 31, 1904.*

Trade Conditions at Leeds, England.—For the fiscal year ended June 30, 1904, the declared exports from this consular district to the United States decreased \$88,598.67. The largest items of exports were, iron, valued at \$283,823.36; machinery, \$248,938.06; cattle hair, \$112,762.98. These comprised a little more than three-fifths of the total exports, which amounted to \$1,030,631.83. The year was one of great trade depression, from which nearly all the industries in this district have suffered severely. A few factories producing specialties and the branches of the engineering trade producing war material were about the only exceptions. Within the last few weeks some lines of trade have shown a little improvement and a more hopeful feeling. Quite recently Japan has placed large orders for blankets and overcoating cloth with several woolen mills in this district.—*Louis Dexter, Consul, Leeds, England, October 31, 1904.*

Venezuelan Customs Regulation.—The Bureau of Statistics has received from Consul E. H. Plumacher, at Maracaibo, copy and translation of a Venezuelan executive decree dated October 21, 1904. Every passenger leaving a port of Venezuela for another port of the Republic and touching at one of the Antilles must, before departing, deposit with the customs authorities of Venezuela a written statement or inventory of his baggage. For this service no charge is made at the custom-house. If the passenger should buy anything in the Antilles, he must on returning to Venezuela pay the Venezuelan duties, including the extra duty and the extra war duty.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

No. 2131

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DECEMBER 13, 1904

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1904

OUR TRADE WITH THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1903.

(From United States Consul-General Evans, London, England.)

The total value of the imports into the United Kingdom from the United States was \$610,563,260 in 1903, against \$634,808,005 in 1902—a decrease of \$24,244,745—and \$705,077,325 in 1901—a decrease of \$94,514,065.^a British exports of all kinds to the United States during the same period totaled, in 1901, \$188,255,750; in 1902, \$215,405,365, and in 1903, \$208,026,030. Thus, while the exports in 1903 show a decrease from those in 1902 of \$7,379,325, they yet exceed the exports in 1901 by nearly \$20,000,000, and those of 1899 and 1900 by still more.

Of these exports, those of British and Irish origin are responsible for \$91,969,415 in 1901, \$118,804,565 in 1902, and \$113,025,655 in 1903, while those of foreign and colonial merchandise amounted to \$96,286,335 in 1901, \$96,600,800 in 1902, and \$95,000,375 in 1903, the variation, as will be observed, being small in the latter class of exports.

Turning to the particular articles imported into the United Kingdom from the United States, we find that the largest increases occurred in cider and perry, \$64,000 (or 200 per cent); maize (corn), \$20,615,000; raw cotton, \$15,000,000; plums, dried or preserved, \$380,000; tea, \$500,000; raw apples, \$2,000,000; and the largest decreases in oxen and bulls, \$3,600,000; butter, \$300,000; wheat, \$30,000,000; oats, \$900,000; dyestuffs (extracts), \$240,000; electrical goods, \$170,000; fish, of all sorts, \$2,600,000; hay, \$2,000,000; bacon, \$4,500,000; hams, \$4,000,000; copper (unwrought), \$5,000,000; condensed milk, \$250,000; flax, or linseed, \$1,000,000; unmanufactured tobacco, \$7,000,000.

The importance in some of the decreases lies not so much in their mere money value as in their relation to the amounts of the article imported in previous years. For instance, the decrease of \$250,000 in condensed milk, while not affecting the total value of the imports to any great extent, points to the probable deletion of this product as an article of import at an early date, the value of the imports in 1903 being but \$1,675, against over \$250,000 in 1902. Imports of cows

^a The consul-general, in his reductions from British to United States currency, estimated the pound at \$5 instead of \$4.8665, its proper value, thus making the imports from the United States \$610,563,260 and \$634,808,005 for the years 1903 and 1902, respectively, whereas they amounted to only \$594,255,221 and \$617,859,039. Throughout the report the reductions were made on the basis of \$5 to the pound, and the same relative inflation of values prevails.

and calves, stallions, mares, geldings, electrical goods, copper ore, copper regulus or precipitate, steel (unwrought), and wine all show heavy proportionate decreases. In 1899 the value of butter imported into the United Kingdom from the United States was \$3,520,305; in 1903 it was only \$953,390. Oats in 1899 were valued at \$9,206,735; in 1903 \$882,665 worth only were imported. Pease, too, have dropped from \$811,560 worth in 1899 to \$334,795 worth in 1903. Electrical goods, which were not separately shown prior to 1900, in that year were valued at \$4,164,005; in 1903 they had fallen to \$628,605. The importance of certain of the increases, also, lies in their relation to the total amounts imported; thus, cider and perry, prunes, apples, raw hides, imitation lard, boots and shoes, silver ore, fish oil, soap and soap powder, and hewn and sawed or split wood of all sorts show large proportionate increases, although the values in each case are not great, or are not as great as in the other increases first enumerated.

In the exports to the United States of British produce, the largest increases were in jute yarn, valued at \$120,000; ships, \$630,000, and woolens and worsteds, \$600,000; but other articles showing relatively large increases during the five years 1899 to 1903 were unmanufactured clay, coal, coke and patent fuel, coal products, cotton yarn, and linens. Decreases which were most notable occurred in iron, wrought and unwrought, \$4,800,000; potatoes, \$1,250,000, and telegraph cables, \$1,500,000. Other decreases from the imports in 1899 occurred chiefly in copper, wrought and unwrought; silk, thrown, twist, or yarn; raw hides; arms and ammunition; cement.

In exports of foreign and colonial merchandise, the only notable increases were in ornamental feathers, \$600,000; diamonds, \$2,000,000; garden seeds, \$270,000; and decreases in raw hides, \$850,000; lace, \$830,000; copper, unwrought, \$1,500,000.

The total imports from the United States into the United Kingdom in 1903 were valued at \$610,563,260; the total exports of all kinds to the United States in 1903 were valued at \$208,026,030; the excess of imports being \$402,537,230. The corresponding figures for the five years 1899 to 1903 were: Imports from the United States, \$3,244,800,735; exports to the United States, \$973,284,280; the excess of imports from the United States being \$2,271,516,455. Inasmuch as the excess of all imports (that is, from all countries and British possessions) over all exports from Great Britain amounted in value during the five years to \$4,298,536,880, it will be apparent that more than half the difference was due to American imports.

H. CLAY EVANS, *Consul-General*.

LONDON, ENGLAND, *October 11, 1904.*

Value of trade of the United States with the United Kingdom in the years 1894 to 1903, inclusive.^a

Year ended June 30—	Imports.	Exports.	Year ended June 30—	Imports.	Exports.
1894.....	\$107,372,996	\$431,059,267	1899.....	\$118,488,217	\$511,778,705
1895.....	159,083,243	387,125,458	1900.....	159,582,401	533,819,545
1896.....	169,968,434	405,741,389	1901.....	143,388,501	631,177,157
1897.....	167,947,820	438,270,398	1902.....	165,746,560	548,548,477
1898.....	108,945,185	540,940,606	1903.....	190,021,658	524,282,656

^aFrom data of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

STATISTICS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The appended statistics are extracted from the annual report of United States Consul-General Evans, London, England, on the commerce and industries of the United Kingdom. The remainder of the report will be printed in Commercial Relations for 1904.

POPULATION.

Population of the United Kingdom, by divisions, in 1881, 1891, and 1901.

Census.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Total for United Kingdom.
1881.....	25,974,439	3,735,573	5,174,836	34,884,848
1891.....	29,002,525	4,025,647	4,704,750	37,732,922
1901.....	32,527,843	4,472,103	4,458,775	41,458,721

Estimated population (exclusive of army, navy, and seamen abroad) of the United Kingdom, by divisions, on June 30 of each of the years 1901, 1902, 1903, and 1904.

Year.	England and Wales.	Scotland.	Ireland.	Total for United Kingdom.
1901.....	32,621,263	4,483,880	4,445,630	41,550,773
1902.....	32,997,626	4,531,299	4,432,274	41,961,199
1903.....	33,378,338	4,579,223	4,413,655	42,371,216
1904.....	33,763,434	4,627,656	4,398,462	42,789,552

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.

Acreage under crops and grasses, and number of horses, cattle, sheep, and swine in the United Kingdom in 1902 and 1903.

Classification.	1902.	1903.
Total area of land and water.....	<i>Acres.</i> 77,683,084	<i>Acres.</i> 77,683,084
ACREAGE UNDER CROPS AND GRASSES.		
Cereals and legumes:		
Wheat.....	1,772,840	1,620,388
Barley or bere.....	2,083,014	2,021,823
Oats.....	4,157,079	4,257,052
Rye.....	78,164	69,228
Beans.....	245,656	241,956
Pease.....	180,292	181,951
Total.....	8,517,045	8,333,000

Acreage under crops and grasses, and number of horses, cattle, sheep, and swine in the United Kingdom in 1902 and 1903—Continued.

Classification.	1902.	1903.
Vegetables:	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>
Potatoes	1,214,575	1,195,877
Turnips or swedes	1,906,273	1,898,879
Mangold or mangel-wurzel	519,337	478,894
Cabbage, kohlrabi, and rape	239,677	231,743
Vetches or tares	175,560	147,967
Other crops	186,687	193,985
Total	4,241,109	4,146,845
Clover, sainfoin, and grasses:		
For hay	2,982,081	3,063,638
Not for hay	3,126,092	3,037,584
Total	6,108,173	6,091,222
Permanent pasture or grass, not broken up:		
For hay	6,151,501	6,358,319
Not for hay	22,257,391	22,187,124
Total	28,408,892	28,545,443
Other:		
Flax	50,577	45,610
Hops	48,031	47,938
Small fruit	80,385	81,260
Bare fallow	298,532	356,715
Total	477,525	581,523
Total acreage under crops and grasses	47,752,744	47,708,033
LIVE STOCK.		
Horses:	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Number.</i>
For agricultural purposes	1,441,375	1,477,991
Unbroken, 1 year and over	381,880	387,817
Unbroken, under 1 year	199,706	204,136
Total	2,022,961	2,069,944
Cattle:		
Cows and heifers, in milk and in calf	4,064,341	4,100,480
Other cattle, 2 years and over	2,414,475	2,467,770
Other cattle, 1 year and over	2,462,099	2,413,307
Other cattle, under 1 year	2,416,071	2,426,947
Total	11,376,986	11,408,504
Sheep:		
Ewes kept for breeding	11,682,803	11,485,423
Other sheep, 1 year and over	6,374,654	6,197,158
Other sheep, under 1 year	11,995,299	11,976,282
Total	30,056,756	29,658,863
Swine:		
Sows kept for breeding	492,600	540,008
Other swine	3,147,182	3,545,805
Total	3,639,782	4,085,808

Yields of the chief crops of the United Kingdom in 1902 and 1903.

Crop.	1902.	1903.	Decrease.
Wheat ^a	67,993,330 bushels.	56,952,000	11,041,330
Barley	113,278,261 do.	99,387,825	13,890,435
Oats	358,135,334 do.	336,282,777	21,852,557
Potatoes	5,920,000 tons.	5,277,000	643,000
Turnips	29,116,000 do.	23,523,000	5,593,000
Mangel-wurzel	10,809,000 do.	8,212,000	2,587,000
Hay (all sorts)	15,246,000 do.	14,956,000	291,000

^a Reduced from English quarters (560 pounds) to American bushels. The tons are British tons of 2,240 pounds each.

COAL PRODUCTION.

Quantity and value of coal mined in the United Kingdom in 1901, 1902, and 1903.

Year.	Tons.	Estimated value at place of production.	Value per ton.
1901.....	219,046,945	\$512,482,760	\$2.34
1902.....	227,096,042	467,607,085	2.06
1903.....	230,384,469	441,187,735	1.94

PRODUCTION OF PIG IRON AND OTHER METALS.^a*Quantity and value of pig iron produced in the United Kingdom in 1901 and 1902.*

Year.	From British ore.		From foreign ore.		Total.	
	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.	Tons.	Value.
1901.....	4,191,908	\$64,133,110	3,836,739	\$60,133,810	8,028,647	\$124,266,920
1902.....	4,399,814	71,224,685	4,279,721	69,280,605	8,679,535	140,506,290
Increase.....	207,906	7,091,575	442,982	9,146,795	670,888	16,238,370

^a Statistics for 1903 not available.*Quantity and value of metals other than pig iron and value of all metals produced from British ores in 1901 and 1902.*

Kind.	1901.		1902.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Fine copper.....tons..	532	\$188,305	482	\$136,605
Metallic lead.....do..	20,034	1,272,996	17,704	994,375
White tin.....do..	4,560	2,782,855	4,392	2,661,460
Zinc.....do..	8,418	745,870	9,129	875,625
Silver from lead.....ounces..	173,724	98,400	145,873	73,315
Other metals.....		110,210		72,850
Total other than pig iron.....		5,198,635		4,614,230
Pig iron.....tons..	4,191,908	64,133,110	4,399,814	71,224,685
Total.....		69,331,745		76,038,915

TEXTILE STATISTICS.

Number of persons employed in textile factories and workshops in Great Britain in 1895, 1896, 1897, 1898, and 1901.

Factories and workshops.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Factories and workshops.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Cotton:				Hosiery:			
1895.....	205,230	333,653	538,883	1895.....	9,771	24,427	35,198
1896.....	203,686	329,234	532,920	1896.....	10,260	25,692	35,952
1897.....	199,576	327,647	527,223	1897.....	9,925	26,250	36,175
1898.....	197,701	328,406	526,107	1898.....	9,385	26,079	35,464
1901.....	198,830	328,793	527,623	1901.....	9,587	28,962	38,549
Wool, worsted, and shoddy:				Lace:			
1895.....	120,972	161,429	282,401	1895.....	9,118	5,450	14,568
1896.....	121,451	162,990	284,441	1896.....	10,313	6,775	17,088
1897.....	111,278	154,466	265,744	1897.....	10,484	6,963	17,447
1898.....	106,207	150,218	256,425	1898.....	10,486	6,519	17,005
1901.....	106,596	153,311	259,909	1901.....	10,462	7,440	17,902
Flax, jute, hemp, and China grass:				Elastic, cocoanut fiber, and horse-hair:			
1895.....	51,206	109,813	161,019	1895.....	4,165	4,635	8,800
1896.....	51,820	110,643	162,463	1896.....	4,216	4,757	8,973
1897.....	50,374	109,067	159,431	1897.....	4,326	4,581	8,907
1898.....	49,102	107,608	156,705	1898.....	4,378	5,025	9,403
1901.....	45,732	104,587	150,319	1901.....	4,036	4,460	8,496
Silk:				Grand total:			
1895.....	11,419	24,463	35,882	1895.....	411,881	663,870	1,075,751
1896.....	11,095	24,755	35,850	1896.....	412,841	664,846	1,077,687
1897.....	10,888	25,749	36,637	1897.....	396,851	654,713	1,051,564
1898.....	10,324	25,187	35,461	1898.....	387,583	648,987	1,036,570
1901.....	8,966	22,589	31,555	1901.....	379,211	650,142	1,029,353

SHIPBUILDING.

Number and register (net) tonnage of vessels, exclusive of ships for the navy and for foreigners, built in the United Kingdom in 1902 and 1903.

Kind.	1902.				1903.			
	Sailing vessels.		Steam vessels.		Sailing vessels.		Steam vessels.	
	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.
Iron.....	49	3,547	38	2,470	6	445	15	750
Steel.....	312	46,630	527	730,678	200	23,658	591	583,579
Wood.....	289	14,634	80	2,415	262	13,208	89	2,629
Total.....	650	64,811	645	735,563	468	42,311	695	586,758

Number and net tonnage of vessels built at the several ports of the United Kingdom in 1902 and 1903.

Ports.	Sailing vessels.		Steam vessels.	
	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.
1902.				
Barrow.....	1	7		
Hartlepool, East and West.....			17	39,768
Hull.....	53	4,968	33	2,662
London.....	245	16,984	15	437
Middlesbrough.....			6	10,538
Stockton.....	13	796	19	41,965
Sunderland.....			58	136,197
Tyne ports.....	4	238	105	134,486
Glasgow.....	29	9,484	125	163,513
Greenock.....	1	9	13	17,069
Port Glasgow.....	5	11,446	27	52,359
Belfast.....	3	122	23	96,741
Other ports.....	296	20,757	204	39,828
Total.....	650	64,811	645	735,563
Vessels built for navy.....			16	34,046
1903.				
Barrow.....	1	13	3	2,398
Hartlepool, East and West.....			22	45,918
Hull.....	42	3,596	56	9,377
London.....	94	6,568	17	631
Middlesbrough.....	2	80	4	6,117
Stockton.....			15	22,956
Sunderland.....	2	376	46	102,210
Tyne ports.....	9	412	107	104,557
Glasgow.....	42	8,642	124	130,595
Greenock.....			17	26,411
Port Glasgow.....	3	5,731	21	32,785
Belfast.....	6	143	14	77,349
Other ports.....	267	16,810	249	24,960
Total.....	468	42,311	695	586,758
Vessels built for navy.....			6	8,423

Vessels built in the United Kingdom for foreigners in 1902 and 1903.

Kind.	1902.				1903.			
	Sailing vessels.		Steam vessels.		Sailing vessels.		Steam vessels.	
	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.	Number.	Tons.
War ships.....			3	193			2	69
Merchant ships.....	27	16,253	108	133,605	51	14,097	107	115,112
Total.....	27	16,253	111	133,798	51	14,097	109	115,182

AMERICAN TRADE WITH SPAIN.

(From United States Consul Birch, Malaga, Spain.)

NEW STEAMSHIP LINE.

At the beginning of the year 1904 a direct line of steamships from New York to this section of Spain was inaugurated by I. M. Ceballos & Co., of New York. Two 4,000-ton steamers, the *Langford* and *Athalie*, were chartered, and while they carry the Norwegian flag, the line is really American. The vessels ply only between New York and Spanish seaports. I am told that the freight business done so far has fully justified the enterprise.

The establishment of this service is expected to go a long way toward the formation of a regular import trade in American goods. So far both steamers have carried full cargoes from New York. The ports of Santander and Barcelona benefit more from this service than the port of Malaga, as the stop here is not made until the return trip, the amount of freight for this port not often justifying a stoppage on the way to Barcelona. The line has a distinct advantage over others in that a transshipment of cargo is avoided.

IMPORTERS OF AMERICAN GOODS.

More American articles have been imported into Malaga during the first nine months of 1904 than ever before during a similar period. This is due in a great measure to the formation of the firm of Carrasco, Bachs & Co., for the sole purpose of importing American merchandise. This firm, the only one in the field, has, during the few months of its existence, shown a surprising aptitude for handling this trade, and is constantly increasing the number and quantity of its importations. The members of the company have excellent financial backing, are satisfied with small profits, and deal on a strictly cash basis. American manufacturers desirous of establishing a Spanish market for their wares can be assured of fair treatment and of being able to conduct business on the American plan through this firm. Unusual stress is laid upon this feature because it is the first systematic attempt made to sell American articles in Malaga and represents a distinct stride forward in a commercial sense.

NEW AMERICAN IMPORTS.

Several classes of American merchandise never before imported into this section of Spain have reached Malaga this year. Among these may be mentioned automobiles, spirituous liquors, incubators, apparatus for shoemaking, paints and varnishes, sterilized milk, etc.

Different patterns and makes of other American wares which have heretofore been imported into Malaga continue to come, but these are,

as a rule, articles of small value, such as shoe polish, stationery, shoe leather, toilet paper, several classes of hand machinery, hams, lard, etc. Quite a market has been established, however, for such goods, and, especially in shoe polish, large sales are made.

AUTOMOBILES.

The American automobile has come and conquered. It must be considered a satisfaction for American "auto" manufacturers to know that their machines have, in the fifth city of Spain, triumphed over the models of every other nation. There are now about a dozen autos in Malaga, half of which are of American build. Three more American cars are now en route, and I believe that other orders are about to be placed. In June, 1903, I reported that the possibility existed for the introduction of the American-made machine, and results have shown that it only remained for the first machine to make its appearance to insure future sales. The proportion of American autos sold here is all the more creditable when it is considered that our makers suffer because of the lack of equitable tariff rates, owing to the absence of a commercial treaty between Spain and the United States. But the American machines seem to "take," and this success is due largely to their style and noiselessness, in addition to other good qualities.

D. R. BIRCH, *Consul.*

MALAGA, SPAIN, *October 26, 1904.*

ELECTRIC SUBURBAN RAILWAYS IN MALAGA.

(*From United States Consul Birch, Malaga, Spain.*)

The projected railway between this city and Velez-Malaga, the next largest pueblo on the east, seems near realization at the present writing. In several previous reports this line has been mentioned as being in an embryo state, but recently the scheme appears to have assumed shape. The prime mover of the enterprise is an American, but the capital invested will probably be mostly Belgian and Canadian. Last week the promoters visited Malaga and closely inspected the proposed route. Active construction work is expected to begin before the end of the year.

The chief function of the line, as now contemplated, will be the conveying of the immense quantity of sugar cane, olives and olive oil, almonds, and raisins, which are now brought into this city on mule back. A passenger service will also be established, but the freight service is viewed as the more profitable. The only obstacle now in the way is the consent of the local authorities to the use of the right

of way over the line of an old railway used in the construction of the harbor wall.

Another line to Coin, a small town about 30 miles to the southwest of Malaga, is also contemplated by the same promoters, but as the concession is still "hanging fire" in Madrid, it will probably be many months before this idea assumes definite shape.

Both these lines, when built, are expected to open up the surrounding country to a considerable degree and to bring the many small but thickly populated villages in close touch with this, the capital city of the province. Steam is the motive power mentioned in the concession for the Velez-Malaga line, but the projectors are desirous of substituting electricity. The Coin road will be electric.

D. R. BIRCH, *Consul*.

MALAGA, SPAIN, *October 26, 1904.*

ICE PLANTS IN CHINA.

(*From United States Consul Anderson, Hangchow, China.*)

In northern China ice is often saved through the summer from a winter supply, and in some of the coast cities of central and southern China ice is to be had through the summer from stocks brought from the north in winter. But in the large inland cities of central and southern China there is little or no ice throughout a long and hot summer. The Chinese appreciate the uses and need of it, but the poverty of the great masses preclude them from ever purchasing it if there is any great expense attached to it. The wealthy and the well-to-do classes, however, are buying ice whenever and wherever they are able to get it with comparatively little trouble and at reasonable expense. There is a growing demand for it during the summer months not only among the constantly increasing number of foreigners in the cities of central and southern China, but among the better class of Chinese. The field for establishing ice plants of the American sort is almost unlimited, and the present movement is very favorable to the cordial reception of propositions from American business men either to build plants for Chinese trade or to sell the plants to Chinese corporations.

In Hangchow, a city of something like a million people, there is not a single ice plant, although the demand for ice is constantly increasing. During the summer months some of the large fish merchants have ice brought with fish stocks from Ningpo, where it has been secured from the north during the winter. It is proposed that the large cotton factory here utilize some of its property for an ice plant in connection with its other work, and the factory authorities are said to be about ready to close with Shanghai agents of a foreign firm for the equipment. There is room for a large independent plant at once, however

and the situation here is no different from what it is in four or five other cities in this consular district, not to mention the rest of China.

Pending the establishing of public ice plants in the cities of this part of China, there is a demand for information as to small plants for household or community use. Catalogues will be of advantage and will be distributed, as far as possible, when received. The whole trade ought to be pushed.

GEORGE E. ANDERSON, *Consul*.

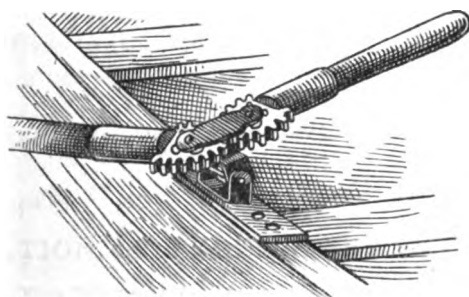
HANGCHOW, CHINA, *October 12, 1901.*

ARTICULATED OAR.

(From *United States Consul Ridgely, Nantes, France.*)

An ingenious invention, which may or may not be already known in the United States, is being talked about just now in the French journals. It is an articulated oar for rowboats, which enables the rower to row his boat while facing in the direction in which he is moving instead of turning his back, as the old system requires. The inventor is M. Doyen, of 66 rue de Namur, Brussels, Belgium.

It is claimed for this invention that while permitting the rower to face in the direction in which he desires to propel the boat, it does not in any other manner affect the old system of rowing or weaken the



Mechanism of articulated oar.

effect of the stroke. Consequently, no training or practice is required to enable any oarsman to use the new oar. It is formed of two arms, which are joined at the oarlocks by articulating toothed sectors, which are firmly attached to the boat. This mechanism produces an inversion in the movement of the two arms of the oar. The cleats which join the two arms are so adjusted that the oarsman gives to the articulated oars the same movements of raising or lowering and of propulsion as with ordinary oars. The accompanying illustration gives an idea of the invention.

BENJAMIN H. RIDGELY, *Consul*.

NANTES, FRANCE, *October 31, 1904.*

COTTON CULTURE IN GERMAN COLONIES.

(From United States Consul Monaghan, Chemnitz, Germany.)

Considerable interest has been manifested among Chemnitz textile manufacturers in the development of colonial cotton culture. At the suggestion of the Kolonial-Wirtschaftliche Komitee, of Berlin, which has in charge the project of cotton growing in Togo, Camerun, and other German African colonies, a special local committee (Kolonial-Wirtschaftliche Fachausschuss) has been formed. The local chamber of commerce was instrumental in its organization.

The Berlin committee also asked for financial aid in carrying out its project for the next three years. It was estimated that a sum of 600,000 marks (\$142,800) would be required to carry out the plans of the government committee, of which 500,000 marks (\$119,000) had been already raised, and much of the remainder is reported to have been contributed by local textile manufacturers. In making the call for financial assistance, the Berlin committee pointed out that during the recent cotton crises Germany suffered a loss of over 60,000,000 marks (\$14,280,000) in the cotton industry.

The expansion of the cotton-growing industry is to be encouraged through the supply of the best seed, cotton gins, and bale presses free of charge, as well as by the free delivery in the colonies of such material. Other special transportation facilities and cash premiums will be offered. It will be remembered that several German steamship lines last year carried the entire African cotton crop raised in the German colonial possessions to German ports free of charge, special offers to this effect having been published.

J. F. MONAGHAN, *Consul*.

CHEMNITZ, GERMANY, *October 25, 1904.*

INSPECTION OF FOODSTUFFS IN GERMANY.

(From United States Consul Monaghan, Chemnitz, Germany.)

A strong complaint has been registered this year in the Chemnitz Chamber of Commerce against the enforcement of the recent food-inspection laws, which have been rigorously carried out and stringently interpreted. Most of the complaints were lodged by bakers, grocers, drug stores, fruit dealers, and manufacturers of liquors, yeasts, and vinegars. The evidence presented in these complaints went to show that, while the chemists employed by the inspection bureau did no more than strictly adhere to the provisions of the laws, performing their tasks honestly and efficiently, though with excessive stringency, some remedial legislation is required to ameliorate the

wrongs unintentionally caused by the effective and severely worded law in operation at the present time.

That part, especially, which relates to the adulteration of food products and the use of foreign ingredients is incomplete and indefinite in its wording and is the cause of most of the injustice of which complaint is made. Petition is hence made for a rewording of this part of the law, and the more exact definition of products, constituents, and foreign ingredients, so as to remove the uncertainty which now surrounds the enforcement of the law and spare the manufacturers and dealers the expense and loss of good will in their trade which is always incurred when adulteration is alleged and an examination made, even though eventually the case is dismissed in favor of the defendant.

J. F. MONAGHAN, *Consul*.

CHEMNITZ, GERMANY, *October 25, 1904.*

ITALY'S WAR AUTOMOBILES.

(*From United States Consul Brush, Milan, Italy.*)

An interesting and successful trial of automobiles under the auspices of the minister of war was held this month, in which it has been demonstrated to the entire satisfaction of those concerned that automobiles can be used to advantage in war times. As horses owned by private persons are subject to requisition by the military authorities in the event of war, an attempt will be made to render automobiles subject to the same law.

Fifty owners of automobiles were invited to take part in the maneuvers, and of these thirty responded. Thirteen routes were selected, leading to various points on the eastern, western, and northern frontiers. All covered a considerable length, and many were difficult. One led to the fortress of the "Spluga," lying at an altitude of 2,107 meters (6,909 feet) above sea level, and another to the "Stelvio," at a height of 2,756 meters (9,042 feet), which is the highest carriage road in Europe.

At dawn, September 1, each chauffeur of the thirty automobiles participating left the town of Brescia by a certain gate, and then opened a sealed order containing the route laid down for him. In view of the supposed invasion of the country by an enemy the routes were selected with regard to safety as well as speed. The distance had to be covered within twenty-four hours, and the military authorities made every preparation for verifying the routes, time of departure and arrival, etc. Copious notes, also, were taken in order to suggest improved methods in future trials. Some of the cars carried officers.

Every one of the cars returned to Brescia before midnight of the same day, and but one of them had an accident. Two cannons were

transported by the automobiles, and bread and other supplies were taken to fictitious military camps. In rapid delivery of important supplies, such as heliographs, field telephones, etc., and for many other strategical purposes, it was found that the new 'service went beyond all expectations. The longest distance covered was 540 kilometers (335 miles).

HARLAN W. BRUSH, *Consul.*

MILAN, ITALY, *September 29, 1904.*

NOTES.

Drought in Saxony.—Saxony has passed through a very trying period. From the middle of May to the 10th of September there was practically no rain. Such was the scarcity that the water in the Chemnitz reservoir fell from 24 to 8 meters (82 to 26.24 feet), causing the city council to issue orders forbidding street sprinkling and admonishing the people to be careful in using water. To avoid all danger of a water famine in the future the city is building a new reservoir at Neunzehnhain, to be finished in three years, at a cost of from 5,000,000 to 7,000,000 marks (\$1,190,000 to \$1,666,000). Owing to the absence of rain the Elbe fell so much that all traffic had to be suspended. One firm in Chemnitz, I am told, lost over \$7,000 owing to the fact that its shipment of American oil by boat from Hamburg could not pass Magdeburg. The railroad refused to transport the fluid because of the attendant danger, and the barrels had to remain in the sun for weeks, causing the hoops to loosen and let the oil run off. One can readily see the disadvantages as regards transportation with which Saxon industry had to contend.—*J. F. Monaghan, Consul, Chemnitz, Saxony, Germany, October 25, 1904.*

Welsh Steel, Iron, and Tin Plate.—Since my last annual report the steel, iron, and tin-plate industries have not been as prosperous as they might have been, yet there is some improvement. In 1902 the amount of unwrought or part-wrought steel imported into the Newport docks from Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands, and the United States amounted to 82,885 tons. In 1903 the quantity was 99,430 tons. The next annual returns will show that no less than 250,000 tons have been imported during the year. The quantity will probably touch high-water mark. The importing of American bars has stopped, as the contracts have been completed, and their place will be taken by the German-made article. The German bars have been secured at a price which enables this country to successfully compete with foreign countries in the manufacture of tin and sheet plates. The exports of

tin plates are gradually on the increase, and, with one or two exceptions, there has been a steady advance during the year.—*Daniel T. Phillips, Consul, Cardiff, Wales, October 31, 1904.*

Spanish Trunk Swindlers Caught.—About the first of the present year an old Spanish swindling scheme, which at intervals for the past twenty-five years has been operated with varying success, was resumed, with Malaga as the base of operations. The fraud is known as the “bogus trunk swindle,” and is carried on by letters from a mythical person alleged to be imprisoned in the “Castle of Malaga” (which does not exist) and his American victim, with whom he claims relationship. By means of a decoy letter the swindlers were traced to a house in a narrow street during the first week of March, and eight arrests were made. All but one were subsequently released, the man held being considered the Malaga representative of the schemers, who at different times operated in each of the principal Spanish cities. His trial has not yet taken place, but he has already been punished by over six months’ imprisonment.—*D. R. Birch, Consul, Malaga, Spain, October 26, 1904.*

Milk Adulteration.—While the ordinary methods of milk adulteration are easily detected by expert examiners, it is reported that a French chemist, Doctor Quesneville, has made some experiments that point to the probability that for some time there has been practiced a form of deception in milk adulteration which has escaped the attention of health officers. In a paragraph in the Birmingham Daily Mail it is explained that the deficiency of fats, whether due to the poverty of the milk or the extraction of fats, has been covered by the addition of foreign greasy matter. Doctor Quesneville found that “benzine would dissolve foreign fats without affecting the natural fats in milk,” and thus by examining samples which have passed the ordinary test he discovered such substances as pork dripping and cocoanut butter.—*Marshal Halstead, Consul, Birmingham, October 26, 1904.*

New Spanish Sunday Edict.—The effect upon Malaga of the recent royal edict for a “descanso dominical” (Sunday of rest) has been most wholesome. None but necessary and recreative work is permitted, and this sweeping change of the Sabbath from a day of labor to one of complete relaxation for the workingman seems to meet with the approval of all concerned. The bullfight, which always heretofore took place on Sunday afternoon, is prohibited, and the new order is considered by many to be the first of a series of laws leaning toward the abolition of bullfighting.—*D. R. Birch, Consul, Malaga, Spain, October 26, 1904.*

Stone Crushers for France.—I have been asked recently as to the cost and practical utility of American stone breakers, and quite likely manufacturers of a good machine of that character might do some business in France. A breaker that will break stones without making too much dust is the sort required. Dust is so objectionable that much of the stone broken in certain French quarries for export to England as well as for home use is required to be screened, and in Guernsey, Channel Islands, electric blowers are used in connection with the breakers to blow away the fine particles. Manufacturers of stone breakers who may be interested in the possibilities suggested by this report may address Mr. Thomas Sankey, 51 rue Hippolyte de Tocqueville, Cherbourg, France.—*Benj. H. Ridgely, Consul, Nantes, France, October 31, 1904.*

Canals in Saxony.—The Saxon Association of Manufacturers during the last year busied itself with several extensive canal projects. One plan embraces a canal from Leipzig to Luppe and Halle, making connections with the Saale River, and another, with a canal from Leipzig to Riesa, making connections with the Elbe. The consummation of either project would constitute a great encouragement to Saxon industry. The Chemnitz Chamber of Commerce has taken steps to use its influence in getting an extension of a canal, if built to Leipzig, so as to include Chemnitz, as otherwise the iron industry would suffer in competition with Leipzig foundries and factories.—*J. F. Monaghan, Consul, Chemnitz, Germany, October 25, 1904.*

German Opposition to the American Tobacco Company.—The Chemnitz Chamber of Commerce some time ago presented a petition to the Saxon minister of the interior, asking for governmental action to support the fight now being waged against the American Tobacco Company in this country. This action was taken on the suggestion of the antitrust commission of Frankfort.—*J. F. Monaghan, Consul, Chemnitz, Germany, October 25, 1904.*

Canadian Goods for South Africa.—It is said that American firms with branches in Canada, or when they can buy as cheaply in Canada as in the United States, are commencing to fill their South African orders from Canadian ports. This practice is rendered profitable by the tariff preference which Canada has in South African entries.—*P. Gorman, Vice-Consul-General, Montreal, Canada, October 31, 1904.*

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

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DECEMBER 14, 1904

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FOREIGN TRADE OF GERMANY.

(From United States Consul-General Mason, Berlin, Germany.)

TOTAL TRADE.

The total value of the foreign trade of Germany in the five years ending with 1903 was as follows:

Value of foreign trade of Germany in the years 1899 to 1903, inclusive.

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
1899.....	\$1,376,508,464	\$1,039,681,342	\$2,416,184,806
1900.....	1,438,234,000	1,131,214,000	2,569,448,000
1901.....	1,420,150,046	1,132,738,866	2,552,888,912
1902.....	1,381,780,400	1,145,446,400	2,527,226,800
1903.....	1,504,421,800	1,221,011,400	2,725,433,200
Excess in 1903 over 1902.....	122,641,400	75,565,000	198,206,400

Instead of the net decrease of \$25,662,112 in foreign commerce in 1902 from the prior year there was an increase in 1903 in both imports and exports amounting in all to nearly \$200,000,000. The total weight of imports in 1903 was 47,033,847 metric tons, and that of the exports 38,280,816 metric tons, both being increases over the weights in the preceding year.

STAPLES OF TRADE.

Ranked in the order of their importance, the twenty leading articles of import and export in 1903 were as follows:

Value and percentage of total value of twenty leading commodities imported into Germany in 1903.

Commodities imported.	Value.	American equivalent.	Per cent of total value.
	<i>Marks.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	
Cotton, raw.....	395,100,000	94,033,900	6.2
Wool, raw.....	288,600,000	68,686,800	4.6
Wheat.....	252,600,000	60,118,800	4.0
Barley.....	164,700,000	39,198,600	2.6
Gold, crude, bullion.....	164,300,000	39,103,400	2.6
Coffee, raw.....	145,200,000	34,557,600	2.3
Cattle hides.....	119,600,000	28,464,800	1.9
Silk, raw.....	119,200,000	28,369,600	1.9
Lumber and timber.....	111,400,000	26,513,200	1.8
Eggs.....	108,400,000	25,779,200	1.7
Copper, raw.....	102,300,000	24,347,400	1.6
Coal.....	94,300,000	22,343,400	1.5
Lard.....	94,200,000	22,419,600	1.5
Horses.....	92,600,000	22,038,800	1.5
Corn.....	92,300,000	21,697,400	1.5
Woolen yarn.....	91,000,000	21,658,000	1.4
Tobacco, raw.....	90,300,000	21,491,400	1.4
Petroleum.....	89,500,000	21,301,000	1.4
Chile saltpeter.....	82,900,000	19,730,200	1.3
Rye.....	82,500,000	19,635,000	1.3
All other imports.....	3,540,100,000	842,543,800	56.0

Value and percentage of total value of twenty leading commodities exported from Germany in 1903.

Commodities exported.	Value.	American equivalent.	Per cent of total value.
	<i>Marks.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	
Cotton manufactures.....	301,600,000	71,780,800	5.9
Woolen goods.....	244,200,000	58,119,600	4.8
Machinery.....	232,600,000	55,358,800	4.5
Coal.....	219,400,000	52,217,200	4.3
Sugar.....	186,700,000	44,434,600	3.6
Iron manufactures.....	172,100,000	40,959,800	3.4
Silk goods.....	162,100,000	38,579,800	3.2
Clothing.....	118,100,000	28,107,800	2.3
Ironware, fine.....	88,500,000	21,063,000	1.7
Aniline colors.....	88,000,000	20,944,000	1.7
Books, music.....	84,000,000	19,922,000	1.6
Leather.....	83,100,000	19,777,800	1.6
Gold and silver.....	80,700,000	19,206,600	1.6
Gold bullion.....	64,200,000	15,279,600	1.2
Furs and skins.....	60,600,000	14,222,800	1.2
Engravings.....	60,500,000	14,399,000	1.2
Woolen yarn.....	59,100,000	14,065,800	1.2
Toys.....	56,800,000	13,518,400	1.1
Coke.....	52,600,000	12,518,800	1.0
Other exports.....	2,715,400,000	646,265,200	52.9

IMPORTS BY COUNTRIES.

The United States still heads the list of countries which supply raw material, food products, and manufactured merchandise to Germany. The total value of German imports from our country in 1903 was, according to official German statistics, 943,400,000 marks, equivalent to \$224,529,200, an increase of 32,300,000 marks (\$7,687,400), over the American imports of the preceding year, and 14.9 per cent of the total German imports for the year. The value of the imports, the countries of origin, and the percentage contributed by each are shown in the following table:

Country of origin and value and percentage of total value of commodities imported into Germany in 1903.

Country of origin.	Value.	American equivalent.	Per cent of total value.
	<i>Marks.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	
United States.....	943,400,000	224,529,200	14.9
Russia and Finland.....	841,600,000	200,300,800	13.3
Great Britain.....	833,500,000	198,373,000	13.2
Austria-Hungary.....	754,800,000	179,642,400	11.9
France and Algiers.....	347,800,000	82,776,400	5.5
British Indies.....	283,900,000	67,568,200	4.5
Argentina.....	270,600,000	64,402,800	4.3
Belgium.....	207,400,000	49,361,200	3.3
Italy.....	200,100,000	47,623,800	3.2
Netherlands.....	194,200,000	46,219,600	3.1
Switzerland.....	171,800,000	40,888,400	2.7
Brazil.....	132,100,000	31,439,800	2.1
British Australia.....	120,000,000	28,560,000	1.9
Chile.....	95,700,000	22,776,600	1.5
Dutch East Indies.....	92,300,000	21,967,400	1.5
Sweden.....	90,100,000	21,443,800	1.4
Spain.....	87,700,000	20,872,600	1.4
Denmark.....	77,300,000	18,397,400	1.2
Roumania.....	63,400,000	15,089,200	1.0
Egypt.....	57,000,000	13,566,000	.9
Congo Free State.....	9,000,000	2,142,000	.1
Dominican Republic.....	7,600,000	1,808,800	.1
Turkey, Montenegro.....	37,600,000	8,948,800	.6
China.....	35,100,000	8,353,800	.6

Country of origin and value and percentage of total value of commodities imported into Germany in 1903—Continued.

Country of origin.	Value.	American equivalent.	Per cent of total value.
	<i>Marks.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	
Central America	30,300,000	7,211,400	0.5
British South Africa	29,200,000	6,949,600	.5
Free port, Hamburg	22,200,000	5,283,600	.4
Japan	21,600,000	5,140,800	.8
Norway	21,600,000	5,140,800	.8
Cuba, Porto Rico	15,500,000	3,689,000	.2
Portugal	15,500,000	3,689,000	.2
Uruguay	15,100,000	3,593,800	.2
Mexico	14,500,000	3,451,000	.2
Greece	11,200,000	2,665,600	.2
Venezuela	10,400,000	2,475,200	.2
British North America	9,700,000	2,308,600	.2
Ecuador	9,600,000	2,284,800	.2
Servia	8,800,000	2,094,400	.1
Bulgaria	8,100,000	1,927,800	.1
Peru	7,100,000	1,689,800	.1
British West Indies	7,100,000	1,689,800	.1
British West Africa	42,800,000	10,186,800	.7
Portuguese West Africa	6,500,000	1,547,000	.1
Other countries	60,800,000	14,470,400	.1

EXPORTS BY COUNTRIES.

The United States still holds the third place among countries which import German merchandise, its aggregate imports from Germany in 1903 having been valued at 469,200,000 marks (\$111,669,600), or less than half the value of the German goods imported during the same period by Great Britain. The value of the German exports to each of the more important countries is as follows:

Value and percentage of total value of exports from Germany to the various countries in 1903.

Whither exported.	Value.	American equivalent.	Per cent of total value.
	<i>Marks.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	
Great Britain	987,700,000	235,072,600	19.8
Austria-Hungary	580,600,000	126,282,800	10.8
United States	469,200,000	111,669,600	9.1
Netherlands	418,400,000	99,579,200	8.2
Russia and Finland	413,000,000	98,294,000	8.1
Switzerland	304,100,000	72,375,800	5.9
France, Algiers, Tunis	272,400,000	64,831,200	5.4
Belgium	268,000,000	63,784,000	5.2
Denmark	149,700,000	35,608,600	2.9
Italy	136,100,000	32,391,800	2.7
Sweden	132,300,000	31,487,400	2.6
British East Indies	89,900,000	21,396,200	1.8
Free port of Hamburg	84,400,000	20,087,200	1.6
Argentina	71,000,000	16,898,000	1.4
China and Kiao-chau	63,700,000	15,160,600	1.2
Norway	62,700,000	14,922,600	1.2
Spain	58,200,000	13,851,600	1.1
Brazil	51,900,000	12,352,200	1.0
Turkey	50,200,000	11,947,600	1.0
Japan	45,600,000	10,852,800	.9
British Australia	44,800,000	10,662,400	.9
Chile	43,300,000	10,305,400	.8
Roumania	37,600,000	8,948,800	.7
Mexico	36,500,000	8,687,000	.7
British America	35,800,000	8,520,400	.7
British South Africa	32,700,000	7,782,600	.6
Portugal	24,460,000	5,821,480	.5
Egypt	22,700,000	5,402,600	.5
Dutch East India	21,800,000	5,188,400	.4
Uruguay	14,100,000	3,355,800	.3
All other countries	1,069,500,000	254,541,000	

The exports to all countries were valued at 5,130,300,000 marks, or \$1,221,011,400.

A striking feature is the very small part which countries like China, Mexico, Japan, and British North America play as markets for German-made goods, notwithstanding all the liberal and intelligent efforts that the German Government and people have made to cultivate their trade.

Equally striking is the varying but always important excess in favor of the United States in its total annual exchanges of merchandise with Germany. In 1901 this net balance of trade in favor of the United States was \$156,189,800; in 1902 it declined to \$89,996,000; and in 1903 it rose to 474,201,000 marks, or \$112,859,835. In the grand total of imports from the United States into Germany are included a small percentage of goods which, although landed at Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck, were destined for Russia, Austria, Switzerland, and Denmark.

GERMAN FOREIGN TRADE IN 1904.

The latest official statistics available are for the six months ended June 30, 1904, and show that the aggregate imports for the first half of the current year were 22,303,450 metric tons, valued at 3,109,300,000 marks (\$740,013,400), an increase of 580,114 tons, or 2.7 per cent, and 98,900,000 marks (\$23,538,200), or 3.3 per cent in value over the imports of the first six months of 1903. The exports during the same period aggregated 18,603,940 metric tons, valued at 2,460,100,000 marks (\$585,503,800), an increase of 300,940 tons, or 1.7 per cent, and 97,300,000 marks (\$23,157,400), or 3.7 per cent in value over the exports of the first half of 1903.

The increased imports were largely in the groups of ores and minerals, lumber, and coal, all of which belonged to and were part of the steady though slow and normal revival of manufacturing industries in this country. American cotton showed a decline from 162,977 tons in the first half of 1903 to 154,499 tons in the same period of 1904, but this is explained by the high prices of the American staple during that period, which compelled heavier imports from Egypt and British India.

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES.

In the first six months of each of the past four years interesting fluctuations are shown in the quantities of the principal commodities shipped from the United States to Germany, as follows:

Quantities of principal commodities imported from the United States into Germany in the first six months of 1901, 1902, 1903, and 1904.

Commodities.	Six months ended June 30—			
	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.
	<i>Metric tons.</i>	<i>Metric tons.</i>	<i>Metric tons.</i>	<i>Metric tons.</i>
Raw cotton	142,892	165,054	162,977	154,499
Cotton waste	5,724	6,906	8,153	7,155
Wheat	389,940	566,989	301,614	149,647
Rye	15,079	20,172	23,670	1,964
Oats	44,478	2,090	503	186
Corn	571,104	43,096	306,319	129,560
Raw tobacco and stems	5,800	6,397	5,377	5,678
Hides and skins	2,149	1,412	3,152	82
Lumber, timber, and staves	107,109	168,164	144,101	163,443
Meats of all kinds	7,086	9,085	5,790	2,301
Petroleum and products	374,128	429,425	387,609	371,762
Pig iron	9,309	309		
Cotton-seed oil	10,918	7,705	6,286	9,374
Copper	23,135	35,780	32,843	47,107
Electrical machinery	232	102	24	28
Agricultural machinery	15,067	9,072	7,734	7,602
Machine tools	800	299	490	1,105
Fresh fruits	542	213	3,698	6,090
Dried and preserved fruits	9,936	9,509	22,724	26,875
Shoes	37	37	52	50

The wheat imports were by far the smallest for any recent half year from January to June. Tobacco and lumber about held their own. Copper rose to an unprecedented figure; pig iron disappeared entirely from the list, and the quantities of both fresh and dried fruits brought in far surpassed the imports of any corresponding half year. Nothing is more firmly established than the German demand for American fresh apples and for the dried prunes, apricots, peaches, pears, and evaporated apples from the Pacific Coast States, which are now standard and unrivaled in this country. The imports of American shoes appear to be about stationary, but there must be some error in this item, for the receipts and sale of American-made shoes are known to be steadily and rapidly increasing, although as yet not more than 10 per cent of the aggregate shoe imports of Germany come from the United States. The falling off in imports of wheat, corn, and rye was due to the fact that Germany had in 1903 normal crops of these cereals, and such grains as had to be imported were bought largely in Liverpool or other European markets and were not reported as of American origin. Of the 913,852 tons of wheat imported into Germany during the first six months of 1904, 345,299 tons came from Russia and 282,797 tons from Argentina, both of which countries far surpassed the United States, which supplied only 149,647 tons, while Roumania came fourth, with 93,545, and Bulgaria fifth, with 10,291 tons. The cereal imports in the first half of 1904, as compared with those of the first six months of the three preceding years, are as follows:

Quantities of cereals, malt, and linseed imported from the United States into Germany in the first six months of 1901, 1902, 1903, and 1904.

Commodities.	Six months ended June 30—			
	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.
	<i>Metric tons.</i>	<i>Metric tons.</i>	<i>Metric tons.</i>	<i>Metric tons.</i>
Wheat	800,658	938,984	826,773	913,852
Rye	373,170	378,532	429,800	225,795
Oats	205,896	114,420	237,949	126,362
Barley	360,460	411,029	608,946	575,340
Maize	686,687	470,445	428,663	340,377
Malt	47,878	50,243	53,671	49,898
Linseed	123,280	111,968	156,178	251,561

SUMMARY OF BUSINESS CONDITIONS.

The general industrial and commercial situation and the changing conditions of the export trade to Germany have been so fully described from time to time in reports from this consulate on special subjects, that a brief résumé of existing conditions will be sufficient for the purpose of the present report.

The industrial revival which set in toward the close of 1902 and became more general and promising in the following year, has continued practically unbroken thus far into 1904, but there has not been at any time anything approaching the robust and prosperous activity of 1898-99. The recovery has been slow, carefully nurtured, and conservative; it may be said to have been in a sense financial rather than commercial and industrial. Probably the most accurate reflex of this revival will be found in the transactions of the Imperial Bank in 1903, which although definitely less satisfactory than in 1900 and 1901, were nevertheless satisfactory. From the bank's published statement it appears that its discounts amounted last year to \$7,739,431, against \$6,177,139 in 1902, and its profits were \$6,042,864, against \$4,759,833 in the previous year. Moreover, the investments conducted through the bank amounted to \$348,000,000, the highest figure ever reached, the average of the ten preceding years having been \$238,000,000.

The Iron and Steel Syndicate, which was organized last year for the express purpose of promoting exports, began with large orders on hand and was actively prosperous for several months. More recently, however, the exports of iron and steel fell off somewhat seriously, so that shipments of pig iron, angles and tees, rails, iron and steel bars, billets, blooms, and sheets—all articles controlled by the syndicate—were 27 per cent less during the first six months of 1904 than during the same period of the preceding year. These losses in exports are accounted for mainly by three facts, namely, the failure of the expected trade revival with Cape Colony, the Transvaal, and in fact the whole of South Africa; the outbreak of the eastern Asiatic war and the consequent suspension of industrial iron and steel consumption in Russia,

and, finally, the revival of active American competition in Great Britain and the English colonies. The exports of German pig iron to the United States, which were active during the first half of 1903, practically ceased when the home supply overtook and passed the requirements of American consumption. So, if the German Steel Syndicate has been somewhat less successful than it hoped to be, the reasons were beyond its control. Another important feature of the iron and steel situation is that the domestic consumption is still far behind what it was in the days of Germany's greatest industrial prosperity. In 1900, for example, when everything was at high tide, the average consumption of iron and steel was 137.7 kilograms (1 kilogram = 2.2046 pounds) per head of population, against a total production of 152.1 kilograms per capita. But in 1903, when the productive capacity had been expanded to 173.9 kilograms, the aggregate home consumption averaged only 98.1 kilograms per capita, leaving the enormous excess of 75.8 kilograms to be taken care of by exportation.

The decline of American meat exports to Germany, under the influence of the agrarian meat-inspection law, has continued until that once rich and flourishing trade is reduced to a mere vestige. In 1898 the German meat imports from the United States reached an aggregate of 47,260 metric tons, valued at \$9,520,000. In 1899 the imports of American canned meats alone amounted to 2,538 tons. On October 1, 1900, that portion of the meat-inspection law which forbade the importation of canned meats and sausages went into effect. Other sections of the law which practically excluded meats in the preservation of which boracic acid had been used took effect in 1902 and the beginning of 1903. As a result of all these restrictions, the imports of American hams and bacon dropped from 30,458 tons in 1898 to 4,277 tons in 1903, and the whole import of American meats last year was only 8,500 tons, valued at \$2,023,000.

The production of coal in Germany in 1903 was 116,664,000 metric tons; of lignite, or brown coal, 45,956,000 tons; of coke, 11,509,000 tons; and of briquettes, 10,476,000 tons.

There were imported, chiefly from Great Britain for gas-making purposes, 6,667,000 tons of coal, and, on the other hand, 17,388,000 tons were exported to the Netherlands, Austria, Belgium, Switzerland, and France. In connection with this subject some very interesting statistics, showing the relative output per capita by the coal miners of different countries, have just been published here. The labor cost forms a large percentage of the expense involved in the production of coal. The efficiency of the miner and the conditions, favorable or otherwise, under which he works, have, therefore, an important bearing on the price of coal. It has been found that in 1901 the average yearly production per workman in the principal coal-mining countries was as follows, the statistics being in metric tons: United States, 548

tons; Upper Silesia, 327; Great Britain, 292; Westphalia, 247; Saar district, 224; Lower Silesia, 195; France, 197; Austria-Hungary, 167, and Belgium, 166. These differences, which are so striking and important in the four principal coal fields of Germany, point not so much to the comparative efficiency of the workmen as to geological peculiarities, the depth and thickness of coal deposits, the presence of water and noxious gases, and the difficulties which beset pumping and hoisting the product from the mine. But when all is taken into account, the cost of coal at the mine's mouth varies in close accord with the output of the individual miner in the several fields. The mining industry of Germany employs 480,000 persons, including some women and boys, and the average individual earnings of the whole force in 1902 were \$243.30.

There is throughout Germany a tendency toward decreased hours of labor, accompanied in many cases by demands for higher wages. In coal mining the shift for underground workmen now rarely exceeds ten hours, instead of eleven or twelve as formerly, while for house building and other mechanical trades nine and ten hours are in many places accounted a day's work. There has been a general and, on the whole, successful effort on the part of municipalities to turn back the tide of indigent labor toward the farms which had been so disastrously abandoned by young men and women in the prosperous years preceding 1900. No less than 13,000 vacancies on farms were filled by the municipal agencies in 1901, and many thousands more went "back to the land" of their own accord.

In the field of machinery manufacture the most notable event of the past year has been the consolidation or organization of most of the great electrical manufacturing firms in this country into working combinations, by which working expenses have been reduced and the disadvantages of strenuous competition to a great extent eliminated. All the principal electrical machine companies appear to be busy at fair prices and largely for export. In general machinery the situation is much less favorable. Orders are meager and prices low. Most factories are working not only with reduced forces but with shortened hours of labor. In the specialty of textile machinery alone is there prosperous activity and good prices, especially for new and highly improved looms and other machines that promise economy in working or a higher grade of product.

Manufacturers in nearly all lines complain of the same persistent overproduction that was evident a year ago. There is a constant building of new factories, which, by means of new and improved machinery, cheapen the cost of production, and by glutting the market for finished products make the struggle of the older concerns constantly more difficult. In cotton manufacture prosperity has suffered from the high and fluctuating prices of the raw American staple,

and organized efforts are being put forth to establish cotton cultivation in Africa, and eventually to emancipate the German spinners from dependence upon their present source of supply.

Agriculture has suffered during the past summer from a severe and widely extended drought, the full effects of which are not yet accurately determined. The effects upon serial crops have been already stated in these reports. Spring wheat and rye were harvested in excellent condition before the worst effects of the drought developed, but barley, oats, and potatoes suffered severely and in some locations have been almost a failure.

Meadows and pastures were sorely stricken, farmers in certain districts had to begin feeding their cattle in August or early September, and the effect upon grazing and dairy interests has been disastrous. Butter, milk, and cheese are scarcer and higher in price than usual at this season, and on many farms the enforced reduction of live stock to meet a restricted forage supply has been so radical that two or three years will elapse before the losses can be made up.

Notwithstanding this unfortunate visitation, which Germany has suffered in common with most other European countries, the morale of the people, their enterprise, their industry, and enthusiastic devotion to education and progress in all that makes a nation great, were never higher and more pervading than now. Improvements in the State railway service, in electric tramway and local railway lines, in new and more advanced schools of commerce, industrial art, and applied science, in the foundation of museums and libraries, and in the intelligent training of the youth of both sexes for whatever may be their duties in life—in all this Germany stands to-day more than ever before in the front rank of the nations.

FRANK H. MASON, *Consul-General.*

BERLIN, GERMANY, *October 20, 1904.*

Exports, by articles, from the United States to Germany, in the fiscal years ended June 30, 1893, 1897, 1901, 1902, and 1903.^a

Articles.	1893.	1897.	1901.	1902.	1903.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Agricultural implements.....	377,735	710,818	2,677,319	1,868,672	1,419,083
Animals:					
Cattle	41,800	55,525	3,220		
Horses	79,950	822,250	141,460	23,300	17,925
All other	2,210	23,963	6,504	10,824	9,069
Bark, and extract of, for tanning	68,567	57,841	83,447	55,385	64,224
Books, maps, engravings, etchings, etc...	87,588	112,153	181,260	210,320	227,247
Brass, and manufactures of	28,761	101,802	310,287	199,728	189,176
Breadstuffs:					
Barley		1,695,393	163,284	91	
Bran, middling, and mill feed			518,603	146,192	372,210
Corn	2,794,689	9,881,821	17,305,229	2,772,183	6,642,397
Oats	1,870	625,372	642,032	26,643	
Rye	217,782	2,063,268	365,041	569,018	1,500,795
Wheat	2,569,261	1,997,639	7,871,573	14,944,074	11,114,840
Wheat flour	1,011,385	613,309	2,011,259	2,773,836	3,630,126
All other	211,619	1,152,250	990,808	1,307,009	1,234,705

^a From data of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

Exports, by articles, from the United States to Germany, etc.—Continued.

Articles.	1893.	1897.	1901.	1902.	1902.
<i>Cars, carriages, other vehicles, and parts of:</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Cycles, and parts of		1,026,346	199,398	306,156	158,810
All other, and parts of	98,697	64,966	139,070	108,940	121,206
Chemicals, drugs, dyes, and medicines	587,674	647,697	1,020,424	835,781	761,887
Coal	122,527	470	23,499	185,948	13,984
Copper:					
Ore	12,150		23,884	3,500	
Ingots, bars, plates, and old	580,007	3,167,670	7,785,496	6,878,963	7,592,984
Cotton, and manufactures of:					
Unmanufactured	36,900,989	50,264,855	76,234,319	70,416,199	84,824,284
Waste			1,026,475	733,137	553,554
Manufactures of	137,218	314,741	621,814	601,953	1,106,832
Fertilizers	1,498,455	1,944,411	1,941,064	2,308,656	2,604,607
Fish	103,688	394,626	459,429	535,659	785,783
Fruits and nuts:					
Apples, dried	210,140	525,238	733,719	523,502	941,989
Prunes			178,429	446,764	897,212
All other	39,101	555,066	804,250	481,785	1,453,138
Furs and fur skins	549,736	579,863	593,681	945,125	1,825,564
Grease, grease scraps, and all soap stock	195,025	120,560	394,907	57,005	148,133
Hides and skins, other than furs	213,846	632,613	393,133	349,416	440,881
Household and personal effects		87,858	335,994	247,602	358,294
India rubber, manufactures of	110,260	225,146	359,358	341,500	308,556
Instruments, etc., for scientific purposes	99,634	240,577	368,360	401,575	403,008
Iron and steel, and manufactures of:					
Machinery, machines, and parts of—					
Metal-working			1,034,622	258,694	317,711
Pumps			159,759	100,969	83,707
Sewing machines, and parts of	563,401	761,229	863,469	745,684	686,770
Typewriting machines, and parts of		228,710	561,169	679,898	745,630
All other	473,129	1,929,020	1,316,295	923,837	1,106,779
All other manufactures of	348,954	1,099,818	2,460,438	1,472,764	1,475,954
Leather and manufactures of:					
Sole leather	92,685	45,101	28,857	8,462	23,676
All other leather	206,938	317,174	742,281	644,125	872,630
Manufactures of	21,979	103,863	232,980	237,274	374,743
Musical instruments	80,622	124,196	282,711	442,456	441,927
Naval stores:					
Rosin, tar, turpentine, and pitch	678,914	1,122,761	1,330,127	908,793	1,080,109
Turpentine, spirits of	446,280	613,772	1,226,880	1,101,175	1,009,868
Nickel: Oxide and matte		9,776	123,405	103,654	402
Oil cake and oil-cake meal	2,328,169	2,827,285	5,285,863	4,272,628	4,361,209
Oils:					
Mineral—					
Crude	121,268	75,346	193,636	315,082	314,393
Refined	5,296,725	6,617,189	8,746,697	8,622,736	7,949,211
Vegetable—					
Cotton-seed	587,587	430,535	1,407,808	1,275,960	1,298,479
All other	217,396	331,955	279,376	278,844	174,144
Paints, pigments, and colors	30,350	57,614	209,223	166,277	141,520
Paraffin and paraffin wax	273,102	658,619	732,245	1,218,766	1,008,910
Provisions, comprising meat and dairy products:					
Beef, canned	829,652	372,460	247,804	35,318	98,702
Beef, salted or pickled, and other cured	334,983	252,347	397,395	570,922	707,037
Tallow	298,315	336,545	516,498	300,570	229,621
Bacon	678,237	1,572,234	1,386,055	1,675,156	1,339,119
Hams	91,805	268,216	128,758	219,824	116,658
Pork, salted or pickled	56,414	101,639	655,697	719,438	270,437
Lard	6,429,211	8,317,050	13,700,875	16,252,251	15,448,598
Oleo, the oil, and oleomargarine	2,371,999	1,398,062	2,647,375	2,597,581	2,824,009
Sausage casings	437,526	581,113	1,143,279	599,820	748,224
Butter	11,928	329,892	58,907	32,080	52,185
All other	131,648	920,085	784,265	1,002,905	735,952
Seeds	261,092	601,733	1,288,109	699,572	1,898,524
Spirits, distilled	1,495,557	411,627	678,643	516,408	216,404
Tobacco, and manufactures of:					
Unmanufactured	4,694,012	4,650,021	3,913,656	4,280,440	5,978,882
Manufactures of	174,235	199,746	110,170	79,836	112,517
Whalebone	278,114	135,885	146,653	194,535	89,762
Wood, and manufactures of:					
Timber, and unmanufactured wood	627,418	1,385,979	1,229,787	419,300	1,098,494
Lumber—					
Boards, deals, planks, joists, etc.	343,702	639,586	1,746,364	815,572	1,146,228
All other	101,080	1,224,522	602,443	477,796	423,767
Manufactures of	373,096	586,384	649,196	638,404	623,560
All other articles	1,214,050	1,419,788	2,105,536	1,716,481	2,053,017
Total domestic exports	81,992,572	123,784,453	188,350,919	170,222,737	190,896,447
Total foreign exports	1,586,416	1,461,635	3,429,508	2,925,543	2,945,189
Total exports of merchandise	83,578,988	125,246,088	191,780,427	173,148,280	193,841,636

Value of trade of the United States with Germany, 1880 to 1904.^a

Year ended June 30—	Imports.	Exports.	Year ended June 30—	Imports.	Exports.
1880.....	\$52,211,237	\$57,062,263	1893.....	\$96,210,208	\$83,578,988
1881.....	52,989,181	70,188,252	1894.....	69,387,905	92,357,163
1882.....	56,368,542	54,228,953	1895.....	81,014,065	92,053,758
1883.....	57,377,728	66,169,929	1896.....	94,240,833	97,897,197
1884.....	65,019,163	60,608,059	1897.....	111,210,614	126,246,088
1885.....	63,341,753	62,222,791	1898.....	69,697,378	155,039,972
1886.....	69,154,997	61,961,193	1899.....	84,225,777	155,772,179
1887.....	80,647,560	58,571,272	1900.....	97,374,700	187,847,899
1888.....	78,421,855	56,414,171	1901.....	100,445,902	191,780,427
1889.....	81,742,546	68,002,594	1902.....	101,997,523	173,148,280
1890.....	98,837,683	85,563,812	1903.....	119,772,511	198,841,686
1891.....	97,816,383	92,795,456	1904.....	109,188,554	214,780,992
1892.....	82,907,568	105,521,558			

^a From data of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

TRIESTE AS A PORT OF EMIGRATION.

(From United States Consul Hossfeld, Trieste, Austria.)

Previous to 1885 emigration from the Austria-Hungarian to the United States was of comparatively little importance. Since then it has grown from about 10,000 to more than 200,000 per annum. For many years the Government looked with disfavor upon the expatriation of its citizens, and kept all home ports closed to emigration. This forced Austro-Hungarian emigrants to make their journey to the United States via German, Dutch, Belgian, French, and Italian ports. The favorite ports of embarkation were Hamburg and Bremen, and it is safe to say that the two principal German steamship companies during the decade preceding 1903 transported about half a million Austrian steerage passengers, and derived from this service a total revenue of nearly \$15,000,000. By turning this business over to the German steamship companies, Austria virtually subsidized German shipping.

While the west-bound German vessels carried thousands of Austrian emigrants in their holds, many an Austrian ship left Trieste for an American port with less than half a cargo, or even in ballast. Relying for their profits on the emigrant service, the German ships could well afford to compete in freight rates, both to and from America, with Austrian freighters, even in the latter's legitimate territory. American goods destined for Prague, Vienna, and Budapest would be carried via German ports instead of Trieste, and occasionally American goods would be shipped even to this city via Hamburg and Vienna. Hamburg and Bremen had the advantage over this port not only in lower freight rates, but also in more frequent and more regular sailings. This in itself was sufficient to divert considerable business from the Austrian port to its northern rivals. Austrian ships usually succeeded in finding in America full cargoes for their return trips, but

they were obliged to load at several ports and had to content themselves with the less desirable kinds of freight, principally cotton and cotton-seed oil.

Austria gradually recognized the fact that, while keeping her ports closed to emigration did not prevent her people from emigrating, it greatly handicapped her trade and navigation; so when, about two years ago, the Austro-American Steamship Company approached the Government on the question of opening the port of Trieste to emigration, it received rather encouraging assurances. While the Government did not wish to be understood as in any way favoring emigration, it was ready to give to any responsible steamship company the right to embark, under certain restrictions, "trans-Atlantic emigrants" at Trieste. Having received this assurance, the Austro-American Company made the necessary preparations for engaging in the emigrant business and placed with an English firm an order for two new steamers.

However, before these steamers were completed, the Cunard Steamship Company, which had in the meantime received from the Hungarian Government the exclusive right to carry emigrants from Fiume to the United States and had also obtained permission from the Austrian Government to call for passengers at Trieste, surprised the managers of the Austro-American Company by opening a biweekly passenger service between the two principal ports of the monarchy and New York. The first emigrant ship of the Cunard Company called at Trieste on November 9, 1903, and the line has maintained regular biweekly sailings ever since.

The unexpected appearance of the Cunard Company at Trieste, however, did not prevent the Austro-American Company from carrying out its original plans, and as soon as the steamers ordered were completed it opened its passenger service, the first emigrant ship leaving Trieste on June 9, 1904. The steamers of the Austro-American Company make the passage to and from New York in twenty days, calling at Messina and Naples on the westward and only at Naples on the eastward trip. The Cunard ships also require twenty days for the trip from Trieste to New York (which includes, however, a three days' stop at Fiume), but only seventeen days for the return trip. The west-bound ships of this line call at Fiume and Palermo and the east-bound at Naples.

Encouraged by the steady growth of its emigrant business, the Austro-American Company has decided to provide two more ships for its emigrant service, and will soon (before next spring at any rate) also have biweekly sailings of passenger ships.

FREDK. W. HOSSFELD, *Consul*.

TRIESTE, AUSTRIA, *October 31, 1904.*

TRADE OF LA ROCHELLE, FRANCE.

(From United States Consul Jackson, La Rochelle, France.)

Notwithstanding the great depression in seagoing commerce during the last two or three years, this section of France and the port of La Rochelle have not felt the severity of the dullness of trade. During the first six months of the present year there have been established here a new coal depot for handling Cardiff coals, a new petroleum refinery of very large capacity, and a plant for converting milk into powder; important additions have been made to the already splendid fishing fleet, and three important new steamship lines have made La Rochelle a port of call. While in their statistics many ports of Europe have shown a decrease in the tonnage of vessels visiting them, La Rochelle has shown a slight increase.

In September, 1904, there entered and cleared from this port 977 vessels, representing 136,917 tons, an increase of 15,259 tons over last year. The tonnage for the first nine months of last year amounted to 1,135,230 tons, while for the same period in 1904 the tonnage amounted to 1,176,783, an increase of 41,553 tons. The imports and exports direct to and from La Rochelle for September amounted to 39,671 tons, a slight decrease from last year, while the total tonnage of exports and imports was about 2,000 tons less than last year. These figures do not include the imports and exports that leave or arrive at La Rochelle by the coasting trade, the figures of which I have been unable to obtain, but which I have every reason to believe will show a marked increase in the total amount of merchandise handled on the docks at this port.

The principal commodities of which the imports from the United States are less than last year are phosphates and coal. The exports to the United States this year have consisted in increased quantities of cognac brandy, sardines, metallic tissues, and glue.

GEORGE H. JACKSON, *Consul*.

LA ROCHELLE, FRANCE, *November 4, 1904.*

EMERALDS IN COLOMBIA.

(From United States Consul-General Snyder, Bogotá, Colombia.)

Referring to my dispatch of June 1, 1904,^a as to the feasibility of having emeralds in the rough shipped to the United States, I have now to report that in a conversation with Mr. Molano, secretary of the Banco de Exportadores, a corporation which holds the largest interest in the syndicate now in control of the Muzo emerald mines, I was

^a Printed in Daily Consular Reports, No. 2117, November 26, 1904.

informed that several large consignments of emeralds had been lately shipped to New York by this syndicate, and that it hoped to make a market in the United States for the entire output.

The Chivor group, spoken of in my report, has given good promises lately, and I understand the owners are going to try to raise in the United States the capital necessary for its operation. With the output of Muzo going to the United States, and this rediscovered group controlled by its capital, it would not be long before the entire emerald market of Colombia was under American control. If the rumor proves true that the Government is shortly to take back the Muzo mines from the present workers and put them up for auction again, a still better opportunity will be opened for American capitalists.

ALBAN G. SNYDER, *Consul-General*.

BOGOTÁ, COLOMBIA, *October 1, 1904.*

PANAMA.

(From the annual report of the British consul at Panama.)

The agricultural and mineral possibilities have still to be developed, and highways and railways are needed to convert what is now wilderness and jungle into farms and fields. The forests abound with valuable woods, and open savannas, with miles of splendid grazing ground, lie within this narrow neck of land. The richness of some of the alluvial deposits and quartz mines is historical. The climatic conditions of some of the interior provinces are good, but until means of communication and transportation are provided there will be no material development.

The Pacific Mail Steamship Company maintains a weekly service between San Francisco and Panama, calling at the principal Central American and Mexican ports en route. This company, through a contract with the Panama Railroad Company, now enjoys a practical monopoly of the freight trade from Central American ports via the Isthmus of Panama. A steamship line has recently been inaugurated between Callao and China, calling at Panama on both the outward and the homeward voyage. The time occupied on the journey between Panama and Yokohama will be about thirty-five days.

The monetary unit of the Republic is a gold coin called a bilboa, divided into 100 cents, but for the present none will be coined, and the United States dollar is legal tender at its normal value, the equivalent to 1 bilboa. Colombian currency now in circulation is to be withdrawn, and 3,000,000 silver pesos are to be minted in denominations of 1 peso, 50, 20, and 10 cents; \$2 silver are the equivalent of 1 bilboa. In order to guarantee the parity between gold and silver the Government will deposit in a bank in the United States a sum in gold equivalent to 15 per cent of the coinage in circulation. The conversion was to begin on September 1 last, when the Colombian currency was to be exchanged for the new coinage at the rate of \$212.50 for 100 bilboas. The introduction into the Republic of all descriptions of silver money is prohibited.

The charge for the registration of each manufacturer's trade-mark and merchant's trade-mark has been fixed at \$50 and \$30, respectively.

Light dues are paid by every steamer or sailing vessel, native or foreign, entering or anchoring in the ports of the Republic where lights are exhibited, at the rate of 5 cents for every ton of registered tonnage, according to the ship's register, up to 100 tons, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents for every ton above that number. Vessels engaged in the coasting trade pay half of the above dues. A tax of \$4 is imposed on foreigners who intend to reside in the Republic. The master of the vessel bringing the immigrant is responsible to the Government for its payment. Traveling agents are required to take out a license before they do business or take orders for goods in the Republic. The license costs \$20, and thirteen permits were granted in 1903.

The United States Government has established a maritime quarantine service for vessels entering the ports of Panama, Acon, Colon, and Cristobal. Incoming vessels must fly a yellow flag at the fore, and, in the case of Pacific ports, await quarantine inspection at the anchorage off Perico and Flamenco islands, not closer than 250 fathoms to the shore or any vessel or hulk. The master must bring a bill of health in duplicate from the United States consul at the port of departure identical with those issued to vessels clearing for ports in the United States, and a supplemental bill of health, also in duplicate, must be procured at all intermediate ports of call. By the closing to commerce of several of the Pacific ports south of Panama, because of the outbreak of bubonic plague, and extreme quarantine restrictions at various Mexican and Central American ports, an important decrease in the exports resulted; importation, however, was maintained and on an increased scale.

Portobello, on the Atlantic coast, through which all trade with ports on the Gulf of San Blas is to be carried on, has been declared open to commerce.

A contract has been signed with a United States company at Bocas del Toro for the establishment of a system of wireless telegraphy between Bocas del Toro and Colon on the one hand and Bocas del Toro and Port Limon, in Costa Rica, on the other, the latter thus affording communication with foreign countries by way of Central America; and a similar system connecting Colon with Panama, and thence with the republics in South America. The system between Colon and Bocas del Toro is to be opened within a year, between Colon and Panama within eighteen months, and between Panama and Central and South American countries within two years. By a recent legislative decree the district of Bocas del Toro has been made a province, with a governor at the head of administrative affairs.

The International Banking Corporation of the United States has opened an agency to do a general banking business in Panama.

About twenty steamers, mainly Norwegian, call at the port each month for the purpose of transporting bananas to the United States. About 300,000 bunches are exported monthly. The plantations are many miles in extent, and the business is entirely in the hands of United States citizens.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

No. 2133

DAILY CONSULAR REPORTS

DECEMBER 15, 1904

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IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF LIVERPOOL.

(From United States Consul Boyle, Liverpool, England.)

IMPORTS.

There are no complete statistics available of the imports and exports of Liverpool from and to the United States. The only statistics here are from customs records published by the Government board of trade. Such of these figures as relate to particular ports show the totals of imports and exports from and to the world at large, and not from or to any particular country. The Government returns show a steady increase, both in imports and exports, at Liverpool during the past five years. The imports in 1903 were valued at \$627,076,770, which is \$8,769,841 in excess of the imports of 1902, and \$91,539,184 in excess of those of 1899. The articles which principally make up the increase over 1902 are as follows:

Principal commodities showing increased imports at Liverpool in 1903 over 1902.

Commodities.	1902.	1903.	Increase.
Maize hundredweight..	9,213,409	11,865,998	2,652,584
Apples, raw do.....	1,464,154	2,312,496	848,342
Bananas bunches.....	840,966	923,820	82,354
Fruit, preserved hundredweight..	170,726	270,798	100,072
Beef, fresh do.....	2,009,854	2,466,598	456,744
Beef, salted do.....	98,943	109,972	11,029
Beef, preserved do.....	239,900	265,132	25,232
Steel, unwrought tons.....	23,982	37,586	13,604
Pyrites of iron and copper do.....	139,290	200,176	60,886
Oil, cocoanut hundredweight..	108,595	214,656	106,061
Oleomargarin do.....	54,533	73,361	18,828
Paper do.....	264,377	296,564	32,187
Sheepskins, undressed number.....	1,866,476	2,090,148	223,672
Soybeans hundredweight..	147,922	206,550	58,628
Sugar, unrefined do.....	4,871,127	5,985,574	1,114,447
Tomatoes do.....	177,171	268,172	91,001
Furniture woods tons.....	88,788	114,349	25,561
Wool, sheep or lambs' pounds.....	104,624,615	110,956,187	6,331,572

Of the goods imported there were several classes which show very marked decreases, namely:

Commodities showing decreased imports at Liverpool in 1903 from 1902.

Commodities.	1902.	1903.	Decrease.
Cocoa pounds.....	16,753,112	14,441,208	2,311,904
Wheat hundredweight..	24,327,592	23,814,885	512,707
Beans do.....	439,241	316,150	123,091
Rice, rice meal and flour do.....	4,096,779	3,140,641	956,138
Cotton, raw do.....	12,349,702	11,922,180	427,522
Cotton waste pounds.....	10,297,286	7,511,184	2,786,102
Fish, of all kinds hundredweight..	802,752	518,066	289,686
Hay tons.....	107,191	40,698	66,498
Hides, raw hundredweight..	357,971	274,401	83,570
Leather do.....	500,917	412,516	88,401
Hams do.....	1,028,907	793,215	235,692
Skins, goat, undressed number.....	3,604,985	2,068,474	1,536,511
Spirits—rum proof gallons.....	2,259,226	1,530,040	729,186
Sugar, refined hundredweight..	1,092,228	829,546	262,683
Tobacco, unmanufactured pounds.....	82,587,109	51,597,813	30,989,296

EXPORTS.

The exports are divided into those of the "produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom" and those of "foreign and colonial produce." The exports of the former in 1903 were valued at \$464,693,657, showing an increase of \$21,549,575 over the exports of 1902, and of \$69,755,662 over those of 1899. The goods which show the greatest increases in 1903 over 1902 are as follows:

Products of the United Kingdom showing increased exports from Liverpool in 1903 over 1902.

Commodities.	1902.	1903.	Increase.
Jute piece goods yards..	21,605,600	31,082,100	9,476,500
Silk yarn pounds..	395,500	523,559	128,059
Woolen and worsted yarn do..	2,167,000	3,010,400	843,400
Woolen and worsted manufactures, piece goods yards..	74,364,200	89,590,400	15,226,200

There were several classes of goods which showed marked decreases, namely:

Products of the United Kingdom showing decreased exports from Liverpool in 1903 from 1902.

Commodities.	1902.	1903.	Decrease.
Cotton yarn pounds..	62,732,000	53,088,300	9,698,700
Cotton manufactures, piece goods yards..	627,829,400	3,589,221,600	88,607,800
Jute yarn pounds..	15,899,600	13,631,700	2,267,900
Linen manufactures, piece goods yards..	99,920,200	87,840,500	12,079,700

The exports of foreign and colonial produce were valued at \$92,160,563, which is \$6,409,071 in excess of the value of exports in 1902, and \$14,303,631 in excess of the export values in 1899. The articles which principally made up the increase in 1903 over 1902 are as follows:

Foreign and colonial products showing increased exports from Liverpool in 1903 over 1902.

Commodities.	1902.	1903.	Increase.
Caoutchouc hundredweight..	220,188	249,029	28,841
Maize do..	57,151	108,959	51,808
Feathers, ornamental pounds..	109,664	147,542	37,878
Fish, cured, other than sardines hundredweight..	155,462	183,494	28,032
Oil, petroleum gallons..	478,456	1,155,831	677,375
Precious stones, diamonds carats..	22,492	56,658	34,166
Furs, unenumerated number..	331,778	456,848	125,070
Wool, goats' mohair pounds..	646,992	1,454,800	807,808

There were certain articles of foreign and colonial produce which showed notable decreases in 1903, as follows:

Foreign and colonial products showing decreased exports from Liverpool in 1903 from 1902.

Commodities.	1902.	1903.	Decrease.
Beads.....pounds.....	569,338	421,390	147,948
Bristles.....do.....	118,684	25,043	93,641
Corn and grain, rice, rice meal and flour.....hundredweight.....	690,655	438,455	252,200
Cotton waste.....pounds.....	4,971,784	3,316,356	1,655,428
Cotton manufactures, piece goods.....yards.....	7,661,118	5,122,483	2,538,635
Leather, dressed.....hundredweight.....	21,326	10,761	10,565
Oil, palm.....do.....	777,267	726,449	50,818
Skins, goat, undressed.....number.....	3,409,452	2,017,991	1,391,461
Skins, sheep, undressed.....do.....	794,169	503,096	291,073
Tobacco, unmanufactured.....pounds.....	5,315,369	4,301,489	1,013,880
Wool, sheep or lambs'.....do.....	37,584,448	32,483,062	5,101,386

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

The total value of declared exports at Liverpool to the United States for the year ended June 30, 1904, amounted to \$19,828,733.55, which, compared with the return for 1903, shows a decrease of \$5,122,655.56. The principal goods showing decreases are as follows:

Declared values of commodities exported from Liverpool to the United States which show decreases in 1904 from 1903.

Commodities.	Year ended June 30, 1903.	Year ended June 30, 1904.	Decrease..
Ale, beer, and mineral waters.....	\$138,417.86	\$129,941.70	\$8,476
Animals.....	184,430.54	67,507.90	116,922
Bricks and tiles.....	26,871.60	20,697.36	6,274
Coal and coke.....	669,173.23	37,443.10	631,730
Cotton, raw.....	1,068,061.57	767,476.67	300,584
Chemicals.....	1,131,000.02	1,044,227.35	86,772
Drugs.....	427,321.67	216,174.76	211,146
Ginger.....	69,283.92	39,703.24	29,580
Grease and soaps.....	559,998.70	56,786.90	503,211
Glue and glue stock.....	118,136.90	75,294.42	42,842
Hemp and flax.....	146,847.08	48,455.66	98,391
Hides and skins.....	852,644.90	456,512.56	396,132
Iron and manufactures thereof.....	2,772,159.79	932,555.75	1,839,604
Minerals.....	238,454.55	155,231.55	83,223
Oils.....	1,597,222.63	925,183.55	672,039
Oilcloth.....	224,116.86	173,268.41	50,848
Pitch and tar.....	137,542.11	58,881.96	78,662
Rubber.....	5,394,199.17	5,188,693.55	205,505
Steel and manufactures thereof.....	455,835.43	133,212.51	322,622
Wax.....	125,882.26	26,088.53	99,798
Woods, walnut.....	61,776.14	21,098.90	40,677
Woods, mahogany.....	825,242.80	601,608.45	223,634

There were several classes of goods which showed increased exports from the Liverpool consular district, namely:

Declared values of commodities exported from Liverpool to the United States which show increases in 1904 over 1903.

Commodities.	Year ended June 30, 1903.	Year ended June 30, 1904.	Increase.
Fish and game.....	\$539,208.14	\$707,202.17	\$167,994
Fruits and vegetables.....	82,064.01	314,243.93	232,189
Tinplates.....	278,643.95	1,022,070.24	743,426
Wool.....	2,183,678.77	2,248,796.02	65,117
Woods, teak.....	8,282.86	22,235.02	13,952

The value of declared exports from the consular district of Liverpool to the United States for the quarter ended September 30, 1904, was \$4,371,026.50, which is \$1,590,518.04 less than the value for the corresponding quarter of 1903. The articles which show the principal decreases are as follows:

Declared values of commodities exported from Liverpool to the United States which show decreases for the quarter ended September 30, 1904, from corresponding quarter in 1903.

Commodities.	Quarter ended Sept. 30, 1903.	Quarter ended Sept. 30, 1904.	Decrease.
Bags and bagging	\$222,924.62	\$197,969.21	\$24,955.41
Copper	405,340.51	89,514.40	315,826.11
Chemicals	204,019.28	191,563.11	12,456.17
Drugs	52,874.51	28,656.81	24,215.70
Iron manufactures	418,704.10	210,349.58	208,354.52
Minerals	47,282.90	15,385.93	31,944.97
Oils	460,771.40	136,924.91	23,846.49
Oilcloth	52,580.71	8,151.38	44,679.38
Rubber	2,176,798.66	1,103,387.73	1,073,460.93
Wool, hair, and nolls	795,740.86	590,321.03	205,419.83

JAMES BOYLE, *Consul.*

LIVERPOOL, ENGLAND, *October 7, 1904.*

CANADIAN NOTES.

(From United States Consul Burke, St. Thomas, Ontario.)

Tenders for new lift lock.—It is announced from Ottawa that tenders for a \$200,000 lift lock at Kirkfield, on the Trent Canal, are being called for. The location will be between Lake Simcoe and Balsam Lake, or about 100 miles from Peterboro lift. The Kirkfield lock will be about 10 feet shorter than the one at Peterboro, and the lift will be 55 feet, or 10 feet less than at Peterboro. The towers at Peterboro are of concrete; at Kirkfield they will be of steel. It is intended that the lock shall be completed by next autumn.

Petroleum production bonus.—About \$75,000 was paid out in bonuses to the producers of crude oil last month. It is expected that the total expenditure for this purpose in the next twelve months will be \$300,000.

Charcoal plant at the Soo.—At Sault Ste. Marie the Lake Superior corporation's charcoal plant is now in operation. Charcoal will be used in the blast furnaces, and the by-products of gray acetate and wood alcohol have all been contracted for by European firms.

Detour Railway to be built.—The construction of the Sault Ste. Marie and Detour Railway is assured. New York men have agreed to furnish the capital required. Detour, at the outlet of St. Marys River, is one of the two harbors in the upper peninsula that are open the year round. The line will open a rich agricultural district in which several flourishing towns are located.

Record-breaking traffic at the Soo.—The figures showing the traffic through the Sault Ste. Marie American and Canadian canals for the month of October, 1904, show an increase over the traffic of the corresponding month of 1903 of 1,097,934 tons. The figures for October, 1903, were, east and west bound, 4,475,965 tons, and for October, 1904, 5,573,909 tons. This breaks the record.

Montreal's large tonnage this year.—It is believed the total tonnage of the port of Montreal this season will reach the two-million mark, which will be a record one. To November 1 the number of sea-going vessels entering the port was 742, against 734 to the same date in 1903. The tonnage to November 1 was slightly above 1,700,000 tons, while the tonnage of the entire season of 1903 was 1,800,000. The increased tonnage, besides being due to the increased number of vessels on the St. Lawrence route, can also be attributed to the larger type of vessels in use.

American Horseshoe Company in Canada.—It is announced that the American Horseshoe Company, of Easton, Pa., has acquired 7 acres of ground in the vicinity of the smelting works at Hamilton, Ontario, upon which it will locate a branch manufactory. This establishment, it is said, will give employment to 100 hands at the beginning, and will put up a building 300 feet in length.

Adulterated coffee in Canada.—The inland revenue department, at Ottawa, has concluded an analysis of 75 samples of ground coffee. Of this number, 45 were genuine, 19 adulterated, and 8 doubtful, and in 3 adulteration was declared. In Montreal 6 samples were genuine, 4 adulterated, and 1 doubtful. In Toronto there were 3 genuine, 2 adulterated, and 2 doubtful.

Good bread from dark flour.—The department of agriculture of the Northwest Territories has just issued a pamphlet on the comparative values of grades of wheat. It was prepared by Prof. George Harcourt, superintendent of fairs and agricultural institutes, and is based on an extensive series of analyses made at the Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph, by Prof. Robert Harcourt. One interesting fact brought out is that bread made from some wheat and flour graded low, while dark in color, is just as good in quality as bread of light color. It would seem that even expert judges are inclined to place too much importance on the whiteness of both flour and bread.

State-owned wireless telegraphy.—The communication from the colonial office recommending the Canadian government, in common with other British self-governing dependencies, to take over the control of wireless telegraphic systems, has been referred to the postmaster-general. There is little doubt that legislation will be introduced at the coming session of Parliament to give effect to the wishes of the Imperial Government. The legislation would not, however, apply to the Marconi Company, which was incorporated a year or two ago, but

to any others that may hereafter be incorporated. The Imperial Parliament has already passed an act to assume control of wireless telegraphy in the United Kingdom. The British Government's action, as has been pointed out previously, is inspired by the fear that in private hands the wireless system, in time of national emergency, might be a great detriment to the State, as it would be possible for an enemy to intercept messages and interfere with plans of defense.

No Chinese immigration.—The act imposing a tax of \$500 upon every Chinaman entering Canada has had a prohibitive effect. Since January 1, 1904, not a single Chinaman has come to this country, with the exception of two who escaped from steamships. In each of these cases, however, the steamship company had to pay the poll tax of \$500. The exclusion of Chinamen has deprived the Province of British Columbia of a handsome revenue. Last year British Columbia received from the poll tax \$225,000 and the year before \$258,000.

M. J. BURKE, *Consul.*

ST. THOMAS, ONTARIO, CANADA, *November 14, 1904.*

CONDITIONS IN FRANCE.

(*From United States Consul Haynes, Rouen, France.*)

During the first six months of 1904 France still labored under the financial and economic difficulties which have been hers since 1870. Material advancement has suffered for the brains and energy that have been absorbed with politics. The diplomatic controversy with the Vatican, the accentuated feeling produced by the State campaign against religious associations, the Chartreux parliamentary inquest, the complaints against the ten-hour labor law, the problem of the budget, the agitation of two years' military service, the continued strain for a larger navy, the strikes which have inflicted such injury upon the chief port of the Republic, and the Far East tragedy, have filled up the half year to the exclusion, to a greater or less degree, of commercial and industrial activity.

The commercial movement is slightly increasing, but compared with the activity of other countries there is, as some of the wisest economists of France assert, "stagnation." A country which a hundred years ago was a Consulate, and in the last sixty years has been an Empire, a Kingdom, and a Republic, and whose national legislation is effected by seven distinct political factions bred from an attempt to clothe royal custom and inheritance with republican principles, seems a country born for political rather than commercial enterprises. The country's minute divisions of land preclude large cattle industries and modern agricultural machinery. No subdivided and hard-worked soil of an old land can effectively compete with Argentine herds and

American and Russian wheat. Moreover the few ports of France are far distant from her manufacturing centers, and her lack of coal necessitates the importation of large quantities of raw materials.

All this goes far toward explaining why the merchant marine still suffers from foreign competition, why strikes have abounded, why the cotton crisis has come and abides, and why the raw imports which entered the country years ago are being largely replaced by English tissues, German chemicals, and American machines. But despite these handicaps, wine and wheat are still produced abundantly, industrial enterprises are carried to successful issues, the treasury is well filled, credit is good, every citizen is contented, thanks to perseverance and economy, and as we look back upon France's many past disasters or times of ill luck, and at her present position, it can well be declared that no country has ever been more remarkably recuperative.

THORNWELL HAYNES, *Consul.*

ROUEN, FRANCE, *October 31, 1904.*

TECHNICAL AND ART SCHOOL AT LEICESTER, ENGLAND.

(*From United States Consul Mahin, Nottingham, England.*)

The technical and art school plays an important part in the commercial and artistic education of the young people of Leicester. It is a municipal institution, founded about seven years ago, to give a thoroughly modern and scientific training in the more important manufacturing processes and industries carried on in Leicester, and also for the encouragement of artistic pursuits.

The curriculum includes a wide range of subjects, such as boot, shoe, and hosiery manufacture, wool dyeing, engineering, carpentry, plumbing, house painting, and dressmaking, with the allied sciences of chemistry, physics, electric lighting, power distribution, mathematics, etc., besides complete courses in modern languages and general commercial subjects. Millinery, baking, geology, etc., were formerly in the curriculum, but these were abandoned, as they did not appeal to the public.

The technical side of the school has 1,500 students, and its workshops are fitted with modern machinery, tools, and appliances, lecture rooms, laboratories, library, reading room, etc. The course of instruction is arranged for both day and evening students and is conducted by thirteen permanent teachers, with additional ones who are not members of the permanent staff.

The art side of the school, conducted by a different corps of teachers, gives instruction to over 1,000 students in drawing and painting in all branches, anatomy, modeling, design, architecture, sciography,

applied arts, decorative plaster work, stone and wood carving, gesso work, gold and silver smiths' work, repoussé and cast-metal work, enameling, embroidery, book illustration, leather work, fresco, terracotta and relief tiles, stained glass, building construction, bookbinding, typography, lithography, painters' and decorators' work, etc. The students are examined by the British board of education, the City and Guilds of London Institute, and the National Society of Arts.

FRANK W. MAHIN, *Consul*.

NOTTINGHAM, ENGLAND, *October 31, 1904.*

OPPORTUNITIES FOR TRADE IN WÜRTTEMBERG.

(*From United States Vice and Deputy Consul Hahn, Stuttgart, Germany.*)

HOW TO INCREASE AMERICAN TRADE.

Statistics as to imports into Württemberg are not collected. The merchants purchase very little American-made goods direct, the large importing and commission houses in Berlin, Hamburg, Frankfort, and Bremen distributing the imports from the United States throughout Germany. No doubt it would be advantageous to American manufacturers and exporters to send to Württemberg skilled commercial travelers who are familiar with the customs, language, and trade conditions of Germany.

The system of sending commercial travelers was long ago adopted by the German manufacturers in foreign markets, and the results speak for themselves. Instead of adopting this method, by which, undoubtedly, exports could be largely increased, most American manufacturers cling to the custom of writing to the consulates in Europe, saying that they would like to enter the European markets. They ask for a list of the principal dealers in their respective lines of goods, and upon receipt of the desired list send to these firms catalogues, price lists, and other printed matter in the English language. As German merchants, with some exceptions, are unfamiliar with the English language, the printed matter of the American manufacturer is generally thrown into the waste basket. All printed matter of American manufacturers sent to this country should be in the German language, the prices quoted should be in German currency, and, if possible, they should include freight and duty.

By adopting this method and appointing agents, or sending commercial travelers who speak the language of the country in which they are seeking trade, the German manufacturers have increased their exports to a very large extent.

AMERICAN FURNITURE.

The manufacture of fine furniture is one of the chief industries of the city of Stuttgart, but none of any kind is sent from here to the

United States. There appears to be a good field for American furniture in this country. Business in this line at present is good and the outlook bright. There is also a good market here for American office equipments. Some dealers have American-made desks and other office furniture in stock, but sales are not pushed.

AMERICAN SHOES.

There is a splendid market here for American shoes, if an energetic effort is made to capture the trade. Negotiations are at present pending regarding the establishment of an American shoe store in this city. Some German dealers have the American product in stock, which they purchase from commission houses in Berlin, Hamburg, and London, but they do not push sales, as it appears that they prefer to sell German shoes. They do not show the American-made article to their customers unless requested to do so.

AMERICAN TOOLS AND MACHINERY.

There is a good market here for American tools and machinery. American-made goods are sold, but sales might be greatly increased. American farming machinery is not in demand, on account of the smallness of the farms in this district.

WILLIAM HAHN, *Vice and Deputy Consul.*

STUTTGART, GERMANY, *October 29, 1904.*

TRADE OPPORTUNITIES IN BOHEMIA.

(From United States Consul Ledoux, Prague, Austria.)

By an active personal canvass, exports from the United States to this country of certain lines of goods, such as machinery, shoes, hats, heating apparatus, office furniture, etc., would be considerably increased and a demand would be created for other lines not now found here, such as barber-shop furniture and fixtures, dentistry furniture, fixtures, and instruments, jewelry novelties, labor-saving machinery and devices.

American manufacturers have so far relied too much on local European agents for the introduction of their merchandise. Too often the efforts of these agents are crippled by both lack of knowledge of the special qualities of American devices and a division of efforts to satisfy the numerous firms, American and foreign, which they represent.

Anyone who wants to enter foreign markets on a large scale should personally introduce his special line or have an agent to do it for him. An A1 American agent, or drummer, speaking the language of the country and introducing only a special line, could do twice the business of any general agent, who would require either a large commission or a substantial salary and devote only a fraction of his time, supplemented by an iota of his energy, to the introduction of the goods.

Those who intend to introduce or enlarge trade in this country should advertise extensively. Advertising is inexpensive in Austria, especially in Bohemia, and though the newspapers have a small circulation, compared to our large American dailies, the advertisements have a large value, as they are generally looked for and read.

If it is desired to introduce merchandise direct—that is, sell it direct by correspondence to the wholesalers and retailers—it is absolutely necessary that correspondence, pamphlets, and circulars be in the language of the country. It is as unwise for an American firm to try to do business in Austria with English letters, pamphlets, and circulars, and with prices in dollars and cents, as for an Austrian firm to attempt the introduction of its wares into the United States with German circulars, pamphlets, and letters, giving its prices in kronen and hellers, and weights and measures in the metric system.

SUMMARY OF SUGGESTIONS.

1. Have your correspondence, pamphlets, circulars, etc., in the language of the country wherein trade is sought. Prices should also be in the currency of that country.

2. If sold direct to the consumer specialties should be advertised in the local newspapers, magazines, and trade papers; if sold to the wholesalers and retailers they should be at least advertised in the trade papers.

3. Quote net prices, i. e., have quotations include freight, transportation, and insurance charges in the currency of the foreign country. Quotations c. i. f. are the most practical for the retailers and consumers; for the wholesalers both c. i. f. and f. o. b. quotations could be used.

4. Personal contact with the buyer yields the most satisfactory results. If possible, an experienced American representative should be sent to introduce specialties. He must be conversant with the language of the country, and if possible with some other languages of Europe, as French, which is spoken in nearly all important stores and wholesale houses.

URBAIN J. LEDOUX, *Consul*.

PRAGUE, AUSTRIA, *October 28, 1904.*

NOTES ON FOREIGN TRADE.

(From United States Vice and Deputy Consul-General Murphy, Frankfurt, Germany.)

During the first half of the present year Russia's imports across its European frontiers aggregated \$156,871,665, against \$143,576,550 in the corresponding period in 1903, and its exports in the same periods were \$201,230,070 and \$223,431,720.

The German consul in San José, Costa Rica, reports the imports of Costa Rica in 1903 as valued at \$5,252,982 gold, and the exports at \$7,319,145. He adds that England has lost the leading position, and that the United States now supplies more than one-half of Costa Rica's imports. This is due to superior transportation facilities.

German newspapers report that New Zealand's exports of frozen meat for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1904, amounted to 98,222 tons of mutton and lamb and 8,740½ tons of beef. There was a decrease from the exports in the preceding year of 16 per cent.

GEORGE H. MURPHY,

Vice and Deputy Consul-General.

FRANKFORT, GERMANY, *November 1, 1904.*

IMITATING AMERICAN SHOES IN FRANCE.

(From United States Consul Jackson, La Rochelle, France.)

Shoes for men purporting to be American-made have appeared in this district, and in nearly every place of any size American shoes are advertised. After careful investigation, I find that there is not a single American-made shoe sold in any of these places. What I found was shoes made on American lasts, manufactured at Toulouse, Limoges, Lyon, and Paris, and, in most cases, with American machinery. The uppers are often American box calf. At La Rochelle there are so-called American shoes which are manufactured in England and Belgium. So far as I have been able to judge, the Belgian footwear is the most carefully made, and closely approaches, in quality and otherwise, footwear made in the United States. It may be also said that some of the English-made shoes are good imitations; but others are not, having been badly lasted and the uppers badly put together.

A day or so ago a well-known gentleman at La Rochelle said to me: "I wear American shoes and am very much pleased with the fit." I asked him if he was sure that they were American. He showed me a pair which he had just bought, having been obliged to send to Paris for them. They were shoes made in the United States, and the incident shows that some people, although few, distinguish between the real and the imitation. Wondering why the imitation found sale while the genuine did not, I made inquiries of several dealers, who informed me that the principal reasons were three: First, the prices of the well-known American grades were so high that no profit was left them; second, that they could not buy in small quantities, but were forced to purchase a certain number of pairs, which their cautious business methods forbade them to do; third, commercial travelers representing the imitation shoes visited them often, while they rarely, some of them never, met a representative selling the real article.

Prices of men's shoes of this kind (imitations) range from 22 francs (\$4.25) to 26 francs (\$5).

There is a valuable trade in this region for American shoe manufacturers who are willing to establish agencies, send travelers, and fill small orders from a central depot. The general testimony of people wearing the so-called American shoes is that they are less elegant than the real article, but more comfortable, and that their popularity is rapidly increasing. It would seem possible that American manufacturers, with their finely equipped shops, could supply this trade quite as advantageously as English or Belgian makers.

I am willing to put any parties interested in touch with dealers, or to secure them representatives.

GEORGE H. JACKSON, *Consul*.

LA ROCHELLE, FRANCE, *November 4, 1904.*

NEW HIGH-SPEED TELEGRAPH INSTRUMENT.

(From United States Consul Liefeld, Freiburg, Germany.)

The London Daily Mail of October 29, 1904, contained the following account of a new telegraphic system being tested by the British postal officials:

A remarkable high-speed telegraph instrument has been invented by a Mr. Donald Murray, who claims that it is as great an advance upon the Morse instrument as the Morse was upon its predecessor, the single needle. For twelve months the post-office has had the instrument working for experimental purposes between London and Edinburgh, apparently with promising results, for it has now been decided to test further a perfected instrument that has been devised by Mr. Murray during that period. If the Murray transmitter ever becomes universally adopted, it will mean that telegraph clerks will never have to put pen or pencil to a telegram, beyond perhaps marking upon it the time of handing in.

The system is in some respects similar to the Wheatstone. It uses a paper tape, which, instead of being hand punched, is perforated by an instrument. The tape at the other end of a wire is similarly perforated, instead of being marked by dots and dashes. This tape can be placed upon another machine, which converts the perforations into printed words on telegraph forms, at the rate of about 120 to 150 words a minute. The system is four or five times as fast as the Morse, and consists of three stages:

1. The telegram is copied on a machine resembling a typewriter. Paper tape runs through this and is perforated as each letter is struck.
2. The message, as it appears on the tape, is run at a very rapid rate through a transmitter, and an exact facsimile of the tape is produced at the other end of the wire.
3. The tape is put through a typewriter with automatic mechanism, driven by a small electric motor, and the message reappears neatly printed, lined and spaced.

This last stage may be described as being similar in effect to the placing of paper rolls of music in an automatic piano. Whereas in that case the perforations are the cause of the notes being struck and the music being produced, so in this instrument the perforated paper is the cause of the typewriter keys going down and the hammers containing the letters striking the telegraph form and producing letters and words.

One of the effects of the use of this instrument, provided it be found ultimately to come up to expectations, would be a great saving of time, as a wire would be capable of carrying four or five times as many words as at present, and fewer persons would consequently be required to perform the work. Any person able to operate a typewriter can transmit messages by the Murray system.

E. THEOPHILUS LIEFELD, *Consul*.

FREIBURG, BADEN, GERMANY, *October 31, 1904.*

GARDEN SCHOOLS ABROAD.

(From United States Consul Liefeld, Freiburg, Germany.)

The following article on "Garden schools in foreign lands" is clipped from the London Daily Mail of October 18, 1904:

If foreign nations are taking the lead of us in agriculture now, what will be the state of affairs in a generation or two? For many of them are teaching their children the science and practice of agriculture with the same care that they teach writing and arithmetic.

Sweden has had "school gardens" for many years past, and their number now amounts to several thousand. Belgium, Switzerland, Austria, Germany, and France have all taken up the idea. Wherever it has been carried out the results are recognized as being most valuable, and people wonder that they did not think of it before.

It has been found that the children take up this study with great interest and with such success that they turn every little bit of ground at home to account and provide the family with vegetables. Taught the latest and best systems of agriculture, they develop into really intelligent agriculturists, and are ready, which we are not, to discard old and wasteful methods for the newest and best.

As an example of what is being done in this way, take the case of Belgium. Here, in the country districts, many schools have plots of ground varying in extent from an acre upward, where a thorough grounding in agricultural science is given. The younger children are taught the use of the spade, hoe, rake, trowel, and watering pot, together with such knowledge as suits their young minds regarding peas, beans, cabbages, potatoes, apples, pears, plums, strawberries, cherries, carrots, onions, parsley, and tobacco. This is easy and pleasant work compared with the sums, writing, and reading of the indoor school. Such young children, 5 years old and upward, are also familiarized with the habits of a few of the commoner animals, the swallow, titmouse, sparrow, lark, finch, mole, hedgehog, caterpillar, butterfly, and May bug.

For older pupils the field is very extensive. They learn about the germination of seeds, the anatomy of plants, with the uses of their various parts—stem, roots, leaves, buds, flowers, and fruit. They are

shown how to plant slips, to plant flowers in pots, to graft, and to transplant. They are taught to lay out a small nursery, to prepare the ground, to sow seeds, and to care for the plants during their growth. The very important subject of fertilizers is fully explained, as well as the dangers from insects and the remedies. Then they learn now to gather seeds and how to keep them, and how to recognize poisonous plants. Gradually the whole science is unfolded. The pupils are taught the advantages and disadvantages of the various kinds of soils; how to use manure, and its virtues as compared with the various fertilizers; how to choose seeds, and the various methods of sowing them by hand, with tools, etc. As the plants grow they are practiced in weeding, thinning, hoeing, hilling, etc., and the effects of the various operations are explained. Plowing, harrowing, and rolling; harvesting hay, grain, turnips, potatoes, carrots; preserving the harvest in stacks, barns, and pits are operations for the advanced student. At the same time he is made acquainted with the best knowledge concerning animals. The pupil learns all about drainage and irrigation, as well as meteorological phenomena—rain, mist, dew, ice, wind—from an agricultural point of view. Obviously, a boy who goes through a complete scientific training of this kind must make a better agriculturist than if he got his knowledge in the haphazard way of our own country. And this fact is proved by the great success of the Scandinavian farmer in America.

Girls, as well as boys, go through systematic training in the garden schools of foreign countries. They learn the qualities of a good laying hen, how to care for their fowls, how to treat milk, to skim it, churn it, and to make cheese, and also the use of the various instruments for testing the density of milk, the amount of its acidity, and the quantity of cream.

E. THEOPHILUS LIEFELD, *Consul*.

FREIBURG, BADEN, GERMANY. *November 4, 1904.*

NOTES.

A Correction.—In No. 2113 of the Daily Consular Reports, issued November 21, 1904, in the report on "Marketing goods in Germany," from Consul-General Mason, at Berlin, the National Association of Manufacturers of New York is reported to have made a contract with a leading German trade paper, Confectionär, of Berlin, by which it is enabled to report the German markets, etc. The National Association of Manufacturers has written to the Department of Commerce and Labor, stating that it "has made no contract with nor is it represented by the paper mentioned, nor any other periodical in any country." It says, further, that "it is only fair to Consul-General Mason to say that his statement was no doubt based on a paragraph in the German paper itself some months ago, printed as the result of a conversation between one of the staff of the association (Manufacturers' Association) and the editor of the paper when in this country. On the part of the association an offer was simply made of a mutual exchange of services in certain matters, and the editor, being at that time much pressed for

time, appears to have misconstrued the purport of the conversation." This correction is made at the request of the Manufacturers' Association.

Immigration into Cuba.—Under date of November 12, 1904, the American chargé d'affaires at Habana, Mr. Jacob Sleeper, transmits the following statement showing the immigration into Cuba during the years ended June 30, 1903 and 1904:

Immigration, by nationalities and sex, into Cuba during the years ended June 30, 1903 and 1904.

Nationality.	1903.			1904.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Americans and Canadians.....	799	325	1,124	901	361	1,262
Germans.....	31	17	48	75	29	104
French.....	118	48	166	130	64	194
Spaniards.....	8,186	1,846	10,031	13,906	2,370	16,276
English.....	253	135	388	225	113	338
Scandinavians.....	81	7	88	52	16	68
Italians.....	227	20	247	239	36	274
Mexicans.....	64	72	136	96	77	173
Syrians.....	144	49	193	118	50	168
Turks.....	24	4	28	67	21	88
All others.....	549	223	772	882	334	1,266
Total.....	10,446	2,745	13,191	16,691	3,520	20,211

Tenders for Wharves and Bridges in New Brunswick.—The department of public works of this province, at Fredericton, New Brunswick, invites tenders for the erection of Ketchums wharf over Kennebecasis River at Hampton; for Roberts Hotel wharf over Kennebecasis River at Rothesay; for rebuilding Louison Brook bridge in Restigouche County, and for rebuilding the Lucy bridge in York County.—*Gustave Beutelspacher, Commercial Agent, Moncton, New Brunswick, November 14, 1904.*

Special Tax on Department Stores in Germany.—The Chemnitz Chamber of Commerce expresses the opinion in its annual report that the special tax levied on department stores in 1900, and collected regularly since then, has failed completely of its purpose, the stores having simply shifted the burden of the tax from themselves to the shoulders of the manufacturers from whom they draw their supplies. In this manner they defeat entirely the intentions of the tax by making still more irksome the existence of the manufacturing classes, who already are suffering severely under the present régime of socialistic legislation. The small retailer reports that no improvement in his position has occurred, and the tax has thus far left no perceptible trace of an influence for the better.—*J. F. Monaghan, Consul, Chemnitz, Germany, October 25, 1904.*

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

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DECEMBER 16, 1904

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AMERICAN TRADE OUTLOOK IN ASIA MINOR.

(From United States Consul Lane, Smyrna, Turkey.)

DEVELOPMENT OF SMYRNA.

The resources of Smyrna are increasing rapidly, and there is every prospect that the increase will continue. The city is spreading out to accommodate its overflowing population. The street railway has recently been extended and further extensions are contemplated. There are now in operation 8 miles of horse-power street railway, practically confined to the water front. Interurban lines are proposed, and await the "firman" or official consent of the Sultan. Carriage roads have been improved and are now in a condition which will permit their use by automobiles. For a distance of about 5 miles from the city the roads are considered perfectly safe, and I anticipate that the use of motor cars by well-to-do suburban residents will soon be inaugurated. A number of American motor launches are now in use about the bay and neighboring islands and American motor cars should find a like preference.

The Ottoman Railway, Smyrna to Aidin, is in a flourishing condition, and its immense new warehouses and depots are nearing completion. Preparations are being pushed for the immediate construction of the railroad pier,^a which will give a deep-water terminus for the freight traffic and materially add to the revenues of the road. All freight for export has heretofore been loaded on lighters and towed alongside ship. As the annual exports of Smyrna amount to \$21,000,000, and as about 50 per cent is carried by this road, the saving is obvious.

The average net income of the Aidin Railway is close to \$1,000,000, which indicates the general prosperity enjoyed by the Smyrna vilayet, and also indicates the ability of the people to pay annually for \$15,000,000 worth of imports. It will be noted that there is an annual excess of exports over imports amounting to \$6,000,000. This, of course, is an excellent thing for the country, but unfortunately the surplus is constantly being drawn to Constantinople. The national deficit is always large, and the opportunity is immediately seized by the Constantinople authorities to apply new and special forms of taxation to any district producing a surplus.

^a See Daily Consular Reports, No. 1661, June 2, 1908.

The only articles of importance manufactured in this district are carpets and rugs, of which nearly the whole output is exported.

IMPORTS INTO SMYRNA.

The following statement shows the principal articles imported into Smyrna, and the countries from which the articles are imported:

Value of imports into Smyrna, and countries from which the imports are drawn.

Articles.	Value.
Agricultural implements.....	\$90,000
Alcohol (3,000 barrels, from Austria and Russia).....	96,000
Butter (Russia).....	70,000
Coal (England).....	375,000
Coffee (Rio and Santos).....	350,000
Cotton goods (England, Germany, the United States, and Italy).....	4,500,000
Cotton yarn (England, Italy, and Germany).....	75,000
Cement, in barrels (France and Italy).....	30,000
Chemical products.....	100,000
Cheese (Roumania, Bulgaria, and Greece).....	240,000
Copper (300 tons from England).....	84,000
Fancy articles and jewelry (France and Germany).....	180,000
Flour.....	60,000
Furniture.....	40,000
Glucose (United States).....	3,000
Hardware (Germany, England, and the United States).....	360,000
Iron (England and Belgium).....	300,000
Leather (France, Italy, and the United States).....	800,000
Lumber (Austria, Roumania, and the United States).....	420,000
Matches (Austria).....	80,000
Mineral oils.....	10,000
Nails (Germany and the United States).....	90,000
Paper (cigarette, wrapping, writing, and printing).....	275,000
Petroleum (Russia and Roumania).....	450,000
Potatoes (France and Italy).....	54,000
Rice (Bangun, the Netherlands, and Italy).....	520,000
Sewing machines (United States and Germany).....	85,000
Sugar (Austria, Russia, and Roumania).....	720,000
Sulphur (Italy).....	132,000
Tin plates (England).....	26,000
Woolen goods.....	3,500,000
Woolen yarns.....	1,500,000
Total.....	15,615,000

Cotton goods.—Of the imports from the United States cotton goods are of first importance, and if special attention were given this trade by American exporters it could be greatly increased. The total value of the annual imports of cotton goods averages \$4,500,000, of which there comes from the United States \$425,000 to \$450,000 worth only, divided as follows: Gray sheetings, \$180,000; gray drills, \$80,000; blue and black drills, \$130,000; white drills, \$30,000. American manufacturers generally show a lack of initiative in pushing the cotton-goods trade, and it is only the superiority of the articles which prevents them from being crowded out of the market. Samples should be frequently forwarded with regular monthly or bimonthly offers. The selection of energetic and honest local representatives, to whom shipments can be made on ninety days' credit, would be a wise step. European manufacturers give much longer credits and thus keep most of the trade in their hands.

Agricultural implements.—There is a steady increase in the importation of American products, but many articles which were formerly

imported in considerable quantities are now neglected. This is particularly true of agricultural implements. American patterns have been copied by German and Greek manufacturers, made up in inferior "pot-metal" qualities, and sent into Turkey at ridiculously low figures. Imitations of American plows are also made by local blacksmiths. These hand-made plows are considered stronger and are sold much cheaper than American plows.

Machinery and tools.—There is an old prejudice here in favor of English tools and machinery that is very difficult to remove, but skilled mechanics are discovering the superiority of American patterns, and a gradually increasing demand is evident. Lack of advertisement and short credits are responsible for the sluggishness of the trade.

Pumps and windmills.—A strong demand in favor of American pumps and windmills is being developed. I recommend great care in the selection of an agent to handle these articles here. Many American pump manufacturers have been swindled by local dealers.

Lamps and lamp chimneys.—Kerosene lamps and lamp chimneys are imported in large quantities, but American prices are generally too high. Austria and Germany enjoy almost a monopoly in this line of goods, but the construction of their lamp burners and basins is very faulty. If the American manufacturers can see their way to put a very cheap metal lamp on this market a goodly trade should develop.

Bicycles.—The importation of bicycles has greatly decreased during the last two years, but what remains of this trade is in the hands of German and French dealers, who handle goods of their native States.

Hosiery.—Cotton hose is an article which seems to offer a promising field, for the prices of American hosiery are lower than of European. A modification of shape will, however, be necessary before a large business can be done in the cheaper qualities. Actual sales of American hosiery have lately been made, allowing a fair margin, and correspondence looking to increased business is being carried on between several first-class local houses and American manufacturers.

Lumber.—Pitch pine lumber is greatly appreciated here. Pensacola pine brings good prices for building purposes, and also for the manufacture of furniture. All lumber consumed in Turkey is imported, and though all modern dwelling houses are built of stone, the frames are of wood. Owing to the frequency of earthquakes it is necessary to construct the stone walls of houses in such a manner that they will not collapse upon the inmates. This is done by raising a wood frame and embedding it in mortar and stone.

The long straight spars of Pensacola pine are in great favor for pile driving and pier construction. The pitch seems to be objectionable to insects, and pine furniture seems to escape the ravages to which the native woods are subject. During the last year two full cargoes of Pensacola pine, valued at \$35,000, were consumed in Smyrna.

Rubber shoes.—American rubber shoes are disposed of readily, and the demand is increasing. Unfortunately, orders are not always promptly filled. This, together with steamer delays, resulted in a large shipment of American rubbers arriving at the end of the season last year. It is to be hoped that Americans will pay especial attention to the prompt filling of orders when seasonable goods are concerned.

Oleo.—Oleo oil is a new article introduced for the first time last year from the United States solely. Its low price has caused it to be easily disposed of, and it is found to be a very acceptable substitute for the expensive Russian butter. There is, I believe, a promising outlook for good business in this article. Difficulties placed in the way of its introduction by the chemical bureau of the Turkish Government have greatly delayed the entry of a recent shipment, but, with the assistance of our legation and consulate-general in Constantinople, we have obtained its acceptance as a noninjurious article of food, so that I do not apprehend trouble with future shipments.

Fancy articles.—Fancy articles, jewelry, soaps, perfumery, etc., to the value of \$180,000 are annually imported. Most of these goods come from France, but a noticeable demand has developed recently for American clocks, cheap watches, cheap soaps, perfumery, electric novelties, revolvers, scissors, razors, etc.

Sewing machines.—A single American company has a practical monopoly of this trade and is developing it steadily and rapidly. Three years ago the sales in this district amounted to something like \$20,000, whereas I am informed by the local manager that during the year ended June 30, 1904, 3,453 sewing machines, valued at \$80,000, were disposed of. Agencies have been opened in all the neighboring islands, and the results, taking all conditions into consideration, are astonishing, as the following sales returns show: Mitylene, \$4,200; Chios, \$4,000; Samos, \$3,600; Rhodes, \$3,850.

This company's plan of credit sale is largely responsible for its success; but it has given especial attention to developing business in Turkey by sending trained men out as agents. The company is amply rewarded for its careful attention to the details of business. If manufacturers of other lines of goods would give the same attention to the output of their factories there would be a different story to tell of American products.

Sulphur.—There is a large increase in the demand for sulphur, and I would suggest that quotations be sent to this market. The very general spread of phyloxera among the vineyards of Turkey is responsible for the great demand for sulphur.

ARTICLES IN WHICH TRADE CAN BE INCREASED.

Articles capable of developing the greatest amount of improvement in trade are, I believe, the following:

Cotton goods, prints, calico, hardware, pumps, windmills, lamps, cotton hose, pitch-pine lumber, rubber shoes, leather, glucose, oleo oil, and fancy articles.

RUFUS W. LANE, *Consul*.

SMYRNA, TURKEY, *October 24, 1904.*

OIL SEEDS AND SEED OILS IN FRANCE.

(From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.)

COTTON-SEED OIL.

The imports of cotton-seed oil into France for consumption, from all countries, during 1903 were 21,606 tons, against 28,338 tons in 1902, a decrease of 6,732 tons, and a decrease of 20,994 tons from the imports of 1901. Of the receipts the United States furnished, in the three years named, 19,496 tons, 26,426 tons, and 40,456 tons, respectively; most of the remainder came from Great Britain.

The total imports, however, during the first eight months of 1904 from the United States, as well as from other countries, show an increase over the imports of the same periods of the two previous years; but the oil has not been consumed very freely, so that the quantities on which duties have been paid, and which have passed into consumption, are less than one year ago. This is shown in the following table:

Total imports of cotton-seed oil into France during the first eight months of 1904, 1903, and 1902.

Country.	1904.	1903.	1902.
United States.....	<i>Tons.</i> 19,338	<i>Tons.</i> 17,513	<i>Tons.</i> 18,015
Other countries (principally England).....	2,575	1,182	2,868
Total.....	21,913	18,695	20,883
Amounts upon which duties were paid and which passed into consumption.....	15,998	16,394	19,187

OLEAGINOUS SEEDS.

The imports of oleaginous seeds of all kinds into France in 1903 were the largest ever known. They reached the enormous total of 827,000 tons, against 757,000 tons in 1902 and 677,000 tons in 1901. A slight falling off has taken place during the first eight months of 1904, the figures being 578,000 tons, against 618,000 tons in 1903 and 545,000 tons in 1902, but this decrease is not sufficient to offset the unusual receipts of last year, and the large stocks of all kinds of oils which are still on hand.

A feature of interest in connection with the manufacture of vegetable oils in France is the falling off in the production of cotton-

seed oil in the Republic. The importations of cotton seed, notwithstanding the bountiful cotton crop in Egypt, amounted to only 30,000 tons in 1903, against 48,000 tons in 1902 and 45,000 tons in 1901; and in the first eight months of this year to 13,800 tons, against 25,000 tons in the first eight months of 1903 and 35,600 tons in the same period of 1902. The few French manufacturers who, in former days, made a specialty of high-grade cotton-seed oils probably do not find it easy to compete with the fine qualities of American oils. Besides, they are handicapped by the difficulty of disposing of their cake, which, unlike the American product, being in an undecorticated condition, does not find a ready sale to the French cattle feeder.

The last advices from India point to a somewhat reduced supply of oleaginous seeds from that country, but the stocks of all kinds of oil, both for edible and for manufacturing purposes, are so large that sellers are willing to contract for deliveries over the whole of next year at the present low prices.

The olive crops were abundant last season, and the production of olive oil exceeded the consumption to such an extent that large stocks have been carried over not only in France, but in all producing countries. The extreme heat and drought of the past summer are reported to have injured the prospects of the next crop, but with the abundance of oil on hand there seems to be but little danger of a scarcity during the coming season.

THREATENED INCREASE OF DUTY ON OIL SEEDS AND OILS.

The bill for imposing duties on foreign oil seeds which are now on the free list and increasing those on foreign oils, which, for a long time, has been before the French Parliament and was supposed to be slumbering in the archives of the tariff committee, with little prospect of awakening, was unexpectedly brought into life again by sudden action on the part of its friends. They succeeded in getting the committee to pass a vote in favor of a duty of 3 francs (58 cents) per 100 kilograms (220.4 pounds) on colza seeds, and a corresponding duty, according to their yield in oil, on all other oleaginous seeds. At the same time the existing duties on vegetable oils, including cotton-seed oil, were raised to 12 francs (\$2.32) per 100 kilograms. The duties on copra and palm kernels, as well as their oils, were not changed.

Shortly after this decision of the tariff committee Parliament adjourned, and the bill will be reported back to the tariff committee, and then sent up to the Chamber of Deputies for discussion during the present session. It will certainly meet with much opposition from the French oil manufacturers, whose interests are seriously menaced by it, from those who are engaged in the oil-seed trade with British India, and from the importers of American cotton-seed oil.

A. M. THACKARA, *Consul*.

HAVRE, FRANCE, *November 10, 1904.*

HARD TIMES IN GREAT BRITAIN.

(From United States Consul Mahin, Nottingham, England.)

That a particularly severe business depression has prevailed the past year in Great Britain and still prevails is proved by several varieties of evidence. Retail shopkeepers in every line complain of dull trade, that sales are fewer in number, and that there is a greater disposition to buy cheap things than for years past. Wholesalers report a generally reduced demand in comparison with recent years.

Manufacturers say that orders are unusually slack, and that the work they have to do is at reduced profits or none. Here and there, however, is an exception. For example, a local lace firm has installed a machine, protected by patents, which makes an imitation torchon that only a semi-expert can tell from handmade lace. It is understood that the firm is prospering wonderfully. Only where competition is impossible does there seem to be any satisfactory profit in manufacturing.

Almost without exception, hotels report reduced receipts this year—the great hotels of London as well as the minor ones in the provinces. The managers generally say that the number of guests has not materially decreased, but that they stay a shorter time and spend less for food and drink. Receipts of British railways have decreased this year, and reductions of the working force and of running time in shops have been general. Reductions of wages are reported in manufactories, but no accounts of increases have come to my notice. Breweries are having a relatively unprofitable year, bank deposits have declined, and the Government revenues have decreased, notably from the income tax and the taxes on beer and spirits.

The number of the unemployed is unusually large. A few trades report increased employment, but the most report the contrary. Returns from 273 trade unions show 6.8 per cent of their members unemployed at the end of September, against 5.8 per cent at the same time in 1903. This year's percentage is the greatest for any September in over twenty-five years; the average for the past ten years was 5 per cent. An estimate which seems to be undisputed raises the probable number of unemployed during the coming winter to 9 per cent. Locally, building trades are particularly depressed. Hundreds of bricklayers, carpenters, painters, etc., in this district are walking the streets, generally receiving out-of-work pay, however, from their respective unions, sufficient to exist upon for a time. During the year ended September 30, 1904, 10,084 men, women, and children "passed through the vagrant wards" of the Nottingham workhouse. These were tramps in unprecedented number, entirely distinct from the regular poor receiving help.

The great number of the unemployed and the gloomy outlook for the winter cause anxious consideration by municipal authorities of what to do to relieve the distress. In this city the sewers are to be reconstructed, a work intended to be spread out over four or five years, but now it is proposed to condense it into as brief a time as possible by employing several hundred more than the expected number of workmen. Numerous other schemes to create work are talked about. It is quite certain, at any rate, that no people whose wants become known will be allowed to suffer in this city. The situation seems not so bad here as in some other places; the number unemployed in this city is estimated at 3,000 to 4,000. In Manchester, for instance, with twice Nottingham's population, 10,000 heads of families, according to reports, are out of work. A labor leader declares the number of unemployed at Leeds (in population between Nottingham and Manchester) to be 15,000. The distress at Leicester is particularly acute, though the number of idle workmen is not stated. Pauperism has increased rapidly in the last two years. The exceptional distress is laid chiefly to the long stagnation in the hosiery and shoe industries. Pauperism has generally increased in all the urban parts of this con-sular district, but has remained stationary or decreased in the rural parts. In some sections of the country a special session of Parliament is demanded to adopt measures to improve the situation.

CAUSES OF THE HARD TIMES.

Many reasons for the hard times are given. One, which nobody omits, is the war in South Africa. This caused great loss of wealth invested there by Englishmen, led to inflation in various lines of production here, and turned loose on the country, at its conclusion, thousands of soldiers out of work, some of whom even to-day are unemployed.

The next cause most commonly named is foreign competition, reducing or preventing rapid growth in British exports and displacing home goods in the home market. Both free traders and protectionists refer to this cause. The latter contend that the competition must be combated by import duties; the former, that it can only be overcome by improved British methods and machinery. Connected with this cause is the heavy investment of British capital in factories in protected countries, to compete there, free from import duties.

Queen Victoria's death is believed to have been a factor in the trade depression by placing the British people in mourning and inducing a habit of more sober dressing, which has, it is claimed, reduced the demand for more expensive wearing apparel. Excessive investments in get-rich-quick companies of the Whittaker Wright stripe have contributed materially to the general depression. The general decline

of agriculture is another alleged cause, but it is a question whether this is a cause or an effect.

A local authority asserts that the import duty on sugar, increased in 1903, is also a cause of the hard times by crippling the confectionery and allied trades, and says that in Nottingham alone it has reduced the number of persons employed in candy making from 400 to less than 100.

THE HOPEFUL SIDE.

There is another phase of the situation worth noting, because at the present moment it seems to be assuming a significance that warrants hope for the future. Mining industries in general this year are doing fairly well; the tin-plate business is distinctly good this autumn. Leather trades, footwear excluded, are now employing more hands than last year, and this is also true of hosiery machine building, which is important in Nottingham, while even in the shoe trade the latest news is that exports are showing a marked increase. A local manufacturer of ladies' skirts and blouses is compelled by increasing trade to enlarge his premises and employ more hands. The favorable weather for late harvesting and preparing the way for next season has distinctly revived agriculture. Employment in the cotton trades in Lancashire is visibly improving, with the more settled prices of the raw material. Within the past two weeks a decided improvement in the stock market has set in, which is considered particularly significant as a sign of renewal of confidence on the part of people with means to invest. A close analysis of the latest returns to the Government board of trade seems to show that the general stagnation is due to dullness in the home trade, and apparently a revival therein would restore prosperity.

FRANK W. MAHIN, *Consul*.

NOTTINGHAM, ENGLAND; *October 31, 1904.*

STUDYING AMERICAN METHODS.

(*From United States Consul Halstead, Birmingham, England.*)

Americans are hardly aware how carefully English people are studying the educational and manufacturing methods of the United States. The following paragraph is from "Science notes" in the Birmingham Daily Post:

It is curious to mark the various impressions conveyed to the visitors from this country to the United States this year. Some of my technical friends have quite recently returned from the St. Louis Exhibition, and they also visited other large manufacturing centers. Among those who were thus fortunate enough to study the ways of the Americans was Dr. D. K. Morris, who will probably be persuaded to read a paper this winter in Birmingham on this subject. It is a remarkable fact that all

of the applied science professors and also the lecturers on civil and electrical engineering at the Birmingham University spent some weeks in the United States in order to study the methods of training in the American universities. As is well known, the dean of the commerce faculty lived there for some years. So that Birmingham at least realizes the example which America has set to this country, and which Birmingham seems bent on copying to the letter.

My friends were most struck with the extreme youthfulness of the American technical managers. The vice-president of the Metropolitan Street Tramway Company of New York, which employs over 7,000 men, is a man 30 years of age. One of the electric light companies over there has a very novel way of inducing the public to buy their electric current; they offer their customers free renewals of lamps as often as they care to apply.

Another thing most noticeable was the introduction of electrical methods for steel making at Pittsburg. Nearly all the men who are in leading positions in the steel industry in this district are from Birmingham.

Undoubtedly many Englishmen going to the United States are very successful there. Those who are thrifty find, with the cost of living perhaps increased somewhat, but certainly not greatly increased, and wages very much greater, that they can save money rapidly. I have, since I have been located here, paid over to people in this district a great deal of money accumulated by relatives who have prospered in the United States. These funds were sent by American administrators, who sometimes get into difficulties about identifications and ask the consul to distribute legacies left to kindred, in England, of the deceased. It must be remembered that it is often the enterprising and resourceful Englishmen who leave home to better themselves in another country. There is an element of truth in the last sentence of the quotation, but it is, of course, exaggerated.

MARSHAL HALSTEAD, *Consul*.

BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND, *October 26, 1904.*

COMMERCIAL AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS IN SWEDEN.

(From *United States Consul-General Adams, Stockholm, Sweden.*)

Official statistics of trade for the first half of 1904 are not yet obtainable, but the statement is made that the figures will not differ materially from those of the preceding year.

BANKS AND BANK DISCOUNTS.

The discount rate on three months' bills, which has been $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent until recently, and which has been considered moderate here, has continued at this figure for more than two years. Yet during this time most of the private banks have been calling in their notes, the authority to issue such notes since December 31, 1903, having been

taken from them and vested exclusively in the State Bank of Sweden, which has shown itself successful in discharging the new duties without increasing its rate of discount until recently, when it was raised 1 per cent.

OCEAN FREIGHTS.

Freight rates during the past year were about as low as possible, if they were to leave any profit to shipowners. Although it has been such an unprofitable year, there is said to have been no case of the compulsory sale of a Swedish vessel.

IRON AND LUMBER EXPORTS.

The principal exports from Sweden are iron and lumber. The exports of iron in 1903 were as follows: Pig iron, 70,100 tons; ingots, 8,500 tons; bloom iron, 23,000 tons; bar iron, 180,000 tons. These are the highest figures ever reached.

The export of iron ore is comparatively large. Strange to say, hundreds of thousands of tons of high-class Swedish iron ore are sent yearly out of the country, and yet great quantities of the manufactured article (rails, for example) are not made in either Sweden or Norway, but are purchased abroad. Perhaps Sweden might have had the necessary iron works before this if more had been done to encourage the introduction of foreign capital where it could have been useful in developing the latent native resources.

According to the report of the Swedish Woods Export Association, the export of deals, battens, and boards, planed and unplaned, from Sweden in 1903 was 1,039,462 standards (171,511,230 cubic feet).

EMIGRATION AND POPULATION.

Emigration from Sweden during 1903 reached the highest figures attained in any year of the last decade, namely, 39,496. Nearly all of the movement is to the United States. The emigration of so many persons, numbers of whom are young and vigorous, is a great loss to the country, and the State is considering how to provide inducements for working people to remain at home. Among other things, it is intended to grant State aid to assist in acquiring a cottage and a small holding, where the owner by cultivating the soil may exist independently of other employment.

The population of Sweden on December 31, 1903, was 5,221,291 persons, and of Stockholm, at the same date, 311,043 persons.

COST OF LIVING AND HOUSE RENTS.

The cost of living has advanced greatly during recent years and house rents are enormously high. As in most Continental cities, the flat system is the usual one here. The rents of ordinary flats are calculated at \$80 to \$100 per room per annum. The rent of choice

apartments in first-rate localities may run up to double these figures. Therefore, a movement is in progress, among all classes of people, to secure homes of their own outside the large towns. Associations are being formed and funds established for this purpose.

EDWARD L. ADAMS, *Consul-General*.

STOCKHOLM, SWEDEN, *October 27, 1904.*

Value of trade of the United States with Sweden and Norway, 1880 to 1904.^a

Year ended June 30—	Imports.	Exports.	Year ended June 30—	Imports.	Exports.
1880.....	\$688,963	\$2,386,403	1893.....	\$4,176,384	\$4,084,704
1881.....	947,896	3,406,296	1894.....	3,112,066	4,391,046
1882.....	1,639,972	1,743,791	1895.....	2,531,327	4,662,601
1883.....	1,831,171	2,824,548	1896.....	3,320,321	5,031,002
1884.....	3,049,838	2,443,162	1897.....	2,500,118	5,463,641
1885.....	2,610,671	3,118,278	1898.....	2,675,063	6,313,786
1886.....	2,563,033	2,938,187	1899.....	2,605,555	12,218,289
1887.....	3,113,402	3,080,869	1900.....	4,244,302	10,436,467
1888.....	3,256,064	2,720,622	1901.....	3,487,639	11,844,152
1889.....	2,983,319	2,615,569	1902.....	3,806,179	10,108,166
1890.....	3,534,890	3,571,834	1903.....	4,975,234	10,101,904
1891.....	3,723,201	4,943,180	1904.....	5,258,114	11,340,884
1892.....	3,754,932	6,579,381			

^a From data of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

TRADE OF GREECE.

(*From United States Consul McGinley, Athens, Greece.*)

GENERAL TRADE.

The generally prosperous condition in the commerce and industries of this consular district which began six years ago and the marked increase in industrial activity reported last year still continue. Two years ago many of the old inhabitants, alarmed at the rapid increase in the number of stores that line the business streets, at the founding of numerous manufacturing plants, and at the large number of business blocks and private residences in course of construction, prophesied an early and disastrous financial crash in Athens and Piraeus, claiming that the business of these two cities could not support such extravagance, but up to date the activity in commercial and industrial circles is unbroken.

The building boom is in full blast, and few American cities of like population can count more edifices in course of construction than can Athens at the present time. It is certain that Athens will soon have, if it has not already, more handsome public buildings, residences, and hotels than any other city in southern Europe or the Levant. Where the money comes from to pay for all these improvements is a mystery to most of the residents; but the costly structures erected of late years show that there is plenty of capital.

As previously reported, the statistical reports of imports, exports,

revenues, etc., published by the Greek Government continue to show discrepancies—errors of either the compiler or the printer—and are therefore not very reliable; but they are the only publications giving such statistics in any shape, and the figures in this report^a were compiled from them. The imports (\$26,110,598) and exports (\$18,878,882) have increased slightly in value in 1903, the imports being \$124,158 and the exports \$3,501,701 in excess of those of 1902. The value of the imports exceeded that of the exports \$7,231,716 in 1903 and \$10,609,259 in 1902.

TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

The most reliable information obtainable indicates that the trade between Greece and the United States is steadily increasing, yet the Greek statistics indicate that the increase in 1902, if any, was very slight, and that the United States had dropped in that year from the eighth to the ninth place in the list of countries trading with Greece, Belgium forging ahead of her. In 1901 France passed Germany and took the fourth place in the list; and the statistics for 1902 show that Germany dropped to sixth place in that year, Turkey passing her. Either the statistics are incorrect or the boasts of some German newspapers that the products of Germany are the most popular in Greece, and that her trade here is rapidly increasing, are empty ones.

As repeatedly stated in my reports, the United States is never credited with one-half of her products that reach this market, as the bulk of them are imported through European countries, and credited to such countries. Up to March, 1902, when a direct line of steamships began regular trips between New York and the principal ports in the Levant, including Piræus and Patras, Greece, all the products of the United States that reached this market had to be brought through other countries of Europe, causing long and annoying delays, and a consequent impediment to the trade between Greece and the United States. Now, in order to compete with the direct line, companies transporting goods from America to Greece through other countries are more prompt in their delivery. As the direct line of steamships has now been in operation two and one-half years, I hope for a better showing, in future reports, of the trade between this country and ours.

There are two serious obstacles to a rapid increase in the trade between Greece and the United States, which my reports and letters have repeatedly brought to the attention of our exporters, and they are the "cash payments" insisted upon, and the incompetent, unreliable resident agents employed. Unless American exporters adopt the plan long followed by their European competitors in this market, and send here competent, reliable men to look after their interests, and give

^a The detailed statistics will be published in Commercial Relations of the United States for 1904.—
BUREAU OF STATISTICS.

acceptable credits, they can not expect to work up a large and profitable trade. American products are very popular in this market, and have the preference of the masses, when prices and terms compete with those of other countries. American exporters answer that their business in this market can not pay expenses of sending representatives here. My reply has been and is, if they can not afford to send agents individually, let them club together and do so collectively, as many of the European exporters do.

In a country where there is no law under which a firm or an individual that receives goods or money under false pretenses can be punished, as I am informed is the case in Greece, foreign exporters will lose unless they have reliable agents on the ground.

The exports to the United States invoiced in Athens and Piraeus during the year ended June 30, 1904, amounted in value to \$211,855, an increase of \$5,755 over their value in the previous year. Besides these exports, shipments to the United States have been made from Voto, Syra, Naxos, and other ports in this consular district at which there are no American consular agents, and consequently I have no record of the amount of such shipments.

AMERICAN AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY IN GREECE.

My annual report for 1902 contained a list of the principal imports to Greece from the United States in that year. A similar list might be given for the present year, there being omitted, however, some of the agricultural machines or implements then listed. As stated last year, the reasons for the falling off in the importation of farming implements are a decrease in the demand for such implements and the difficulty experienced by local agents in collecting payments for those sold here in the two previous years. The whole trouble was caused by some of the American exporters employing incompetent and unreliable agents to introduce and sell their machines to peasants who had never seen such mechanisms before. As a result, the machines were sometimes improperly set up or put together by the agents, and either broke down at once or failed to do good work. In many cases the purchaser was not properly instructed in the use and care of the machine. He ran it without sufficient oil and let the bearings become clogged with dirt. Perhaps he let it stand in the field in all seasons with little or no shelter, and the next year tried to start and operate it without removing the accumulations of rust and dirt, or before properly oiling it. Of course, a machine so treated either refuses to do good work or will not work at all, and the peasant, not knowing where the fault lies, thinks the machine is either a swindle or of inferior pattern and construction. He abandons any further efforts to use it, curses the man who sold it to him, and when the agent comes around to collect the price agreed upon, indignantly refuses to pay. He tells his neighbors how he has been deceived by the machine and its agent; it soon

gets a very bad name in that part of the country, and no more can be sold there.

So long as American manufacturers follow such a course they will not succeed in countries like this. The best means of introducing goods and increasing trade in Greece is to employ only reliable and competent agents.

DANIEL E. MCGINLEY, *Consul*.

ATHENS, GREECE, *October 27, 1904.*

Value of trade of the United States with Greece, 1880 to 1904.^a

Year ending June 30—	Imports.	Exports.	Year ending June 30—	Imports.	Exports.
1880.....	\$451,379	\$145,572	1893.....	\$1,283,557	\$130,461
1881.....	550,638	142,042	1894.....	797,281	124,449
1882.....	899,561	349,467	1895.....	327,201	152,544
1883.....	1,231,580	91,017	1896.....	720,386	191,046
1884.....	1,039,984	185,485	1897.....	732,702	110,763
1885.....	596,707	207,822	1898.....	910,390	127,559
1886.....	730,823	144,008	1899.....	944,521	213,507
1887.....	998,243	171,497	1900.....	1,122,855	290,709
1888.....	1,262,519	174,411	1901.....	1,124,775	291,538
1889.....	988,923	165,079	1902.....	1,563,142	306,950
1890.....	1,125,098	167,282	1903.....	1,326,935	330,844
1891.....	1,378,338	159,445	1904.....	1,588,946	242,229
1892.....	1,300,449	100,370			

^a From data of Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

NOTES.

Wheat Yield of Australia.—It is reported that the States of Queensland, Western Australia, and Tasmania will not produce more than two-thirds of their requirements of wheat, but the other States may be estimated to yield as follows: Victoria, 18,000,000 bushels; South Australia, 12,000,000 bushels; New South Wales, 12,000,000 bushels; total, 42,000,000 bushels. Allowing for seed for the next harvest and shortages in the other States, the surplus available for export will, in all probability, be in the neighborhood of 18,000,000 bushels.—*John P. Bray, Consul-General, Melbourne, Australia, October 28, 1904.*

Printing Machinery Wanted.—I beg to inform the Department that the firm of Stassy & Fekete (address: V, Szechenyi utca, 12, Budapest) is desirous of purchasing a machine that will print packing paper and at the same time roll it up into rolls ready for sale to retailers for immediate use. Such a machine is at present in use by Gat & Neumayer, of this city, who refuse to divulge the name of the makers to their rivals. Offers should also be made to printing firms in all the larger cities of Hungary.—*Frank Dyer Chester, Consul, Budapest, Hungary, November 11, 1904.*

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DECEMBER 17, 1904

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TRADE AND INDUSTRIES OF WÜRTTEMBERG.

(From United States Deputy Consul Hahn, Stuttgart, Germany.)

GENERAL TRADE CONDITIONS.

The general business situation in this consular district at the close of 1903 and during the first half of the current year has been good. Manufacturers, with very few exceptions, report that they have been doing a satisfactory business. Competition, however, was keener than ever and profits were small.

Concentration of capital is still going on and new stock companies are being formed at a lively rate. Most of the old stock companies have increased their capital stock and also their rates of dividends in the current year, and the outlook seems bright. A succession of good crops must also be mentioned as a factor of prosperity. Württemberg, while not a great commercial country, has made great strides forward in its change from an agricultural to a commercial State. The principal industries of Württemberg are the manufacture of mouth harmonicas, jewelry, surgical instruments, motor cars, machinery, tools, shoes, furniture, toys, chemical products, colors, chicory, paper, leather, pianos, and woolen and cotton goods.

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

The following table gives a list of the principal articles, with the value of each, exported from this district (Stuttgart) to the United States during the year ended June 30, 1904.

Value of the principal articles declared at the consulate at Stuttgart for export to the United States during the year ended June 30, 1904.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Colors.....	\$65,493	Toys.....	\$34,360
Cotton waste.....	112,012	Watchman's detectors.....	24,447
Corsets.....	23,785	Woolen and mixed underwear.....	143,839
Drugs and chemicals.....	144,708	All other articles.....	375,153
Leather.....	34,255		
Machinery, tools, and motor cars.....	90,240	Total.....	1,451,151
Mouth harmonicas.....	276,347	Total previous year.....	1,392,186
Needles.....	12,497		
Silver-plated ware.....	25,864	Increase.....	58,965
Surgical and other scientific instruments	88,151		

BICYCLES.

The bicycle trade has been rather satisfactory in the current year. There has been a very good demand for motor bicycles, which have

been considerably improved in weight, with a decrease of noise. One large concern in this district reports that it had to enlarge its plant and work overtime, the home demand as well as export business having materially increased. No bicycles or motor cycles are exported from here to the United States.

CHICORY.

There is one very large chicory factory in Württemberg, having branch factories in Austria, Italy, and the United States. This firm reports that business this year has so far been unsatisfactory. There is enormous overproduction, competition is strong, and each firm spends a larger amount every year for advertising. The trade in coffee substitutes is very large. Export business amounts to almost nothing, as almost every country has a prohibitive tariff on this class of goods.

CORSETS.

The corset industry of Württemberg is steadily decreasing. Exports of corsets to the United States are small; exports to England and her colonies are decreasing, and business in the home market is also very dull. Manufacturers complain of a scarcity of orders, especially for the finer grades. On account of the small export business there is lively competition in the home market and prices are depressed. The prices of raw materials—cotton, whalebone, etc.—increased through speculation, and the profits of the manufacturers were exceedingly small. Collections were slow, and merchants asked for longer credits. There is a good demand for cheap reform corsets, which are replacing the expensive grades. One firm reports that its business decreased over 5 per cent in the current year, and that the outlook is very unfavorable. Another firm states that American competition is noticed in foreign markets.

COLORS AND CHEMICALS.

The trade in dry colors has not changed materially since last year. Manufacturers report that they are very busy, but that competition is stronger than ever, and that it is impossible to advance prices, although the cost of raw materials is steadily advancing. Export business, especially to the United States, increased. The home market has been good in chemicals, but exports decreased.

FEATHERS.

This trade is a very important one in Württemberg. One large concern, with branches in Berlin, Paris, and Odessa, reports that business during the current year has been very satisfactory. It expects to sell,

this year, 20,000,000 pounds of feathers and downs in Germany alone. Its sales in the German market amounted to 14,000,000 pounds in 1903. Exports to the United States have decreased to a large extent, as the American dealers can buy feathers and downs cheaper in the home market on account of the tariff. The outlook is good, payments are made promptly, and no failures of any importance occurred.

MOUTH HARMONICAS.

The chief articles of export from Württemberg to the United States are musical instruments, and of these the greater part are mouth harmonicas, which are sold in greater quantities in the United States than in any other country.

The principal factories are located at Trossingen in the Black Forest. One large concern has one main and fifteen branch factories, employing about 2,000 hands. A great deal of work is also done at the homes of the work people, and sometimes a whole family is busy making mouth harmonicas, which are shipped in enormous quantities to every corner of the globe. The output of this firm alone has been about 6,000,000 mouth harmonicas in 1903, and a further increase is expected. Competition is extremely keen and profits of the manufacturers are small. Most of the firms engaged in this industry have established branches in the United States during the last four years.

One firm reports that business is satisfactory and the outlook favorable, but that prices are depressed. This firm expects a further improvement if the German Government succeeds in making favorable commercial treaties with other countries.

MOTOR CARS.

The well-known Daimler Motor Car Company is located in this district. At the beginning of the fiscal year the company, so it asserts, had enough orders on hand to keep it busy for the next five years, and was just preparing to enlarge its factory in Cannstatt and to build a new plant in Untertürkheim, near Cannstatt, when nearly the whole plant at Cannstatt was destroyed by fire in the night of June 10, 1903. Over ninety finished and half-finished motor cars were burned, also many valuable patterns. By introducing day and night labor in their temporary workrooms the company was able to ship their first motor car built after the fire on August 8, 1903. The new plant at Untertürkheim is finished and both factories now employ 2,200 officials, clerks, and workmen, against 821 in the previous year. The firm has a branch factory at Marienfelde, near Berlin, and business there is also steadily increasing. This company has now many orders on hand in Cannstatt, Untertürkheim, and Marienfelde—in fact, all the orders that can be handled.

TOYS.

Toy manufacturers report that business is increasing in the home market as well as in foreign markets, with the exception of Russia. One firm reports that it is almost impossible to do business with that country on account of the high tariff, the war in the Far East, and, especially, the unsafety in giving credit to Russian merchants. The outlook in the other markets is favorable. Exports to the United States are increasing.

SURGICAL INSTRUMENTS.

One of the largest surgical instrument factories is located in this district, which produces over 20,000 different instruments for human and animal surgery. This firm reports that it has been doing a satisfactory business in the current year, and that there is a good demand for its goods. Export business is also favorable, and the outlook is good.

WILLIAM HAHN, *Vice and Deputy Consul.*

STUTTGART, GERMANY, *October 29, 1904.*

PROPOSED LEGISLATION FOR THE MERCHANT MARINE OF FRANCE.

(*From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.*)

The shipping law of 1902,^a which was intended to ameliorate the condition of the French merchant navy, has given but little satisfaction to either the shipowners or the shipbuilders of France. Although the life of the law was fixed at ten years, during the two years it has been in operation the maximum tonnage prescribed has already been registered, so that during the rest of the period the law will give no encouragement to build new vessels, as they can not enjoy its benefits. The result is that a great stagnation prevails in the shipbuilding yards throughout France, thousands of men are out of employment, and the upbuilding of the merchant marine is checked. To relieve this critical situation, the shipowners and shipbuilders, through their representatives, agreed upon a measure which was presented to an extra-Parliamentary committee appointed by the minister of commerce. The committee, after hearing those interested in the question, prepared a bill which has been approved by the minister of commerce, and will, in all probability, be brought before the present Parliament. This being a short session, however, it is doubtful whether the measure will be discussed, as most of the time will be taken up in voting the budget of 1905.

^a A special report on the French shipping law of 1902 was published in Consular Reports, No. 259, April, 1902; a supplementary report in Consular Reports, No. 262, July, 1902, and in Commercial Relations for 1902, vol. 2, p. 168.

SHIPPING BOUNTY.

The principal features of the new project are the suppression of the navigation bounty and the granting of a shipping bounty (compensation d'armement) to all vessels sailing under the French flag in the deep sea or in the international coasting trade, whether foreign built or constructed in France, provided the former are over two years old when they receive their French registers. The proposed bounty, per day the vessel is actually in commission and per gross ton, is for steamers, 4 centimes (0.772 cent) per ton up to 3,000 tons; 3 centimes (0.579 cent) for each additional ton between 3,000 tons and 6,001 tons; 2 centimes (0.386 cent) for each additional ton above 6,001 tons; for sailing vessels, 3 centimes (0.579 cent) per ton up to 500 tons; 2 centimes (0.386 cent) for each additional ton between 501 and 1,000 tons; 1 centime (0.193 cent) for each additional ton above 1,000 tons.

The bounty is given to only those sailing vessels whose gross tonnage is at least 100. There is a reduction of 15 per cent when steamers, on their trial trips, half loaded, do not make an average speed of at least 10 knots. No bounty is given to steamers which do not make 9 knots. The bounty is increased 10 per cent for steamers making 13 knots on their trial trips; 20 per cent for steamers making 14 knots; 40 per cent for steamers making 15 knots, and 80 per cent for steamers making 16 knots.

CONSTRUCTION BOUNTY.

To compensate the French shipbuilders for the privilege granted to the shipowners to buy their vessels in foreign countries, a considerable increase is proposed in the construction bounties. For steel or iron vessels the projected bounties are, steamers, 145 francs (\$27.30) per gross ton; sailing ships, 95 francs (\$18.34) per gross ton. These bounties are reduced annually 3 francs (57.9 cents) for steamers and 2 francs (38.6 cents) for sailing vessels during the first fifteen years the law is in operation. After fifteen years the bounties will remain fixed at 100 francs (\$19.30) for steamers and at 65 francs (\$12.55) for sailing vessels. For vessels built of wood the bounties proposed are, ships of 150 tons or more, 40 francs (\$7.72) per gross ton; ships of less than 150 tons, 30 francs (\$5.79). If any change should be made in a vessel by which the tonnage is increased, the vessel is entitled to the construction bounty for the increased tonnage.

The construction bounty for boilers, engines, etc., is 27.50 francs (\$5.31) per 100 kilograms (220.4 pounds), with an annual decrease of 50 centimes (9.65 cents) for fifteen years.

In article 8 of the measure exception is made in regard to vessels engaged in a postal service which receives a subvention from the Government. For this class of vessels the construction bounty is not

increased, being the same as under the present law, 65 francs (\$12.55) per ton for the hulls, and 15 francs (\$2.90) per 100 kilograms (220.4 pounds) for the machinery, boilers, etc.

The life of the new act is fixed at twenty years from January 1, 1905. The tonnage of new vessels which can enjoy the benefits of the construction bounties is limited for steamers to 50,000 gross tons per year and for sailing vessels to 15,000 gross tons. The construction bounties granted by the new measure are reserved to vessels of which the hulls, machinery, and boilers were built in France; the shipping bounties to vessels which belong to French ports.

All the provisions of the laws of January 30, 1903, and April 7, 1903, which do not conflict with the new measure will remain in force.

A. M. THACKARA, *Consul*.

HAVRE, FRANCE, *November 10, 1904.*

FRENCH IMPORTS AND PRODUCTION OF COAL.

(From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.)

The imports of coal into France in 1903 were the smallest for several years—12,602,000 metric tons, against 13,179,000 tons and 13,775,000 tons in 1902 and 1901. The reasons assigned for the falling off of the receipts were decreased consumption, owing to the unfavorable condition of the metallurgical and other industries, the stagnation existing in the freight trade, and increased production of the French mines, amounting to nearly 5,000,000 tons more than in 1902. The imports were as follows: Great Britain, 7,139,200 tons; Belgium, 4,011,000 tons; Germany, 1,071,500 tons, and the United States, 3,680 tons.

The importation of both coke and briquettes showed an increase. The receipts of coke were 1,524,300 tons in 1903, against 1,280,000 tons and 1,431,700 tons in 1902 and 1901. The imports of briquettes were 644,740 tons in 1903, against 526,760 tons in 1902. All imports of combustibles from Germany in 1903 were larger than in the previous years—coal, 1,071,080 tons, against 1,030,000 tons in 1902 and 782,450 tons in 1901; coke, 963,370 tons, against 673,340 tons and 782,790 tons in 1902 and 1901, respectively, and briquettes, 31,740 tons, against 15,640 tons in 1902.

In the first eight months of 1904 the total coal imports into France were 8,060,350 tons, against 8,137,180 tons and 7,836,450 tons in the corresponding months of 1903 and 1902. The receipts from Great Britain and Germany showed a falling off, while those from Belgium were slightly larger. There was also an increased importation of coke during the above period, the total imports being 1,108,000 tons, against 978,840 tons and 760,100 tons in the first eight months of 1903 and 1902. The imports of briquettes were 363,940 tons in 1904, against 424,520 tons and 321,030 tons in 1903 and 1902.

Whether or not the falling off of the imports of German coal into France since the beginning of the year indicates that the efforts of the Westphalian syndicate to capture the French market are not succeeding would be difficult to state. German coal is not making great headway in the Havre market, and several of the leading importers inform me that they do not fear the German competition, especially at this time, when the prices for small British coal are so low.

Rumors have been circulated lately of renewed efforts of American coal exporters to establish an outlet in France for American coal. In articles published in several of the English and French trade and daily papers Havre has been mentioned as a port where one of the proposed depots might be established. Whether or not the conditions are favorable at this time for the exportation of American coal to the French Channel ports depends upon the possibility of our miners and shippers meeting the competition of British and German coal, as in these localities but little French coal is consumed. It is mainly a question of price, as the good qualities of the American product are appreciated by the French consumer.

In this connection I give the present prices of steam coal per ton (2,204.6 pounds) alongside of vessels at Havre: Newcastle coal, \$4.25, first quality, and \$3.37, second quality; Cardiff coal, \$4.86, first quality, \$4.50, second quality, and \$4.25, third quality. For stowing in bunkers, 24 cents per ton extra.

According to the provisional statistics recently published by the minister of public works, the production of anthracite and bituminous coal in France during the first six months of 1904 was 16,742,500 metric tons, against 16,997,608 tons during the same period of 1903, a decrease of 255,108 tons.

In their order of importance of production, the coal basins of the Nord and Pas de Calais, Loire, Gard, Bourgogne and Nivernais, Tarn, Aveyron and Bourbonnais showed the greatest tonnage, having produced 15,982,275 tons, of which amount the output of the Nord and Pas de Calais mines was 10,759,739 tons. Then came the coal basins of Auvergne, Alpes Occidentales, Vosges Méridionales, Hérault, Creuse, Corrèze and Ouest.

The production of lignite was 329,311 tons, against 335,810 tons during the first six months of 1903, a decrease of 6,499 tons. The greater part of the lignite was mined in the departments of Bouches du Rhône, Basses Alpes, and Vaucluse.

The total production of mineral combustibles in France during the first six months of 1904 was 17,071,811 tons, against 17,333,418 tons in the corresponding period of 1903, a decrease of 261,607 tons.

A. M. THACKARA, *Consul*.

HAVRE, FRANCE, *November 10, 1904.*

SALTED MEATS, LARD, AND TALLOW IN FRANCE.

(From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.)

SALTED MEATS.

The French trade in American meats has become virtually a dead letter since the increase in the duties last year. It is difficult to import American products which are handicapped by a duty of 50 francs per 100 kilograms (\$9.65 per 220.4 pounds) when similar foreign products are taxed only 30 francs (\$5.79). The effect of the change in the tariff was not felt so much during 1903, as the increased duty did not come into force until the end of the year; but the result of the prohibitory measure is shown in the figures of imports in 1904.

The total imports into France of bacon, hams, and other salted hog meats from all countries for local consumption in 1903 were 4,333 metric tons, against 4,428 tons and 4,931 tons in 1902 and 1901. For the first eight months of 1904 the imports of the above products were 2,670 tons, in comparison with 3,086 tons during the corresponding period of 1903.

The imports of salted beef and hog meats into Havre during 1903 were 837 tons, the lowest figure reached in the past ten years.

The imports of all kinds of meat products, including bacon, hams, salted beef, and canned meats, from the United States into France during 1903, 1902, and 1901 were 1,677 tons, 1,522 tons, and 2,536 tons, respectively. During the first eight months of 1904, 1903, and 1902 the imports were 724 tons, 1,265 tons, and 1,188 tons, respectively.

It should be noted that the above quantities include not only ham, bacon, and salted beef, but also canned meats, the duties on which have not been changed, so that the quantity of hog meats imported this year is trifling and confined to a few cuts which, early in the season, were required for special purposes.

A bill was introduced during the last session of Parliament to grant the minimum tariff of 30 francs (\$5.79) to salted meats of American origin. The measure was referred to the tariff committee, where it has made little or no progress. In equity it should have become a law, as, according to the commercial arrangement of May, 1898, between the United States and France, manufactured and prepared pork meats are admitted under the minimum tariff, while the raw materials from which these products are made are assessed the maximum tariff.

There has been a large increase in the number of hogs raised in France during the past year, and, as a result, prices have been low, at one time falling to almost the lowest figure ever known in the country. The low range of values of the native hog products influenced, to a certain extent, the receipts of American meats, but the

fact remains that the high duty is not only prohibitive but is also discriminative.

Some improvement has of late been shown in the prices of both hogs and cattle, and it seems reasonable to anticipate a falling off in the raising of these animals in the course of next year, especially as the cost of fattening is likely to be considerably increased owing to the high prices of all foodstuffs.

LARD.

Prices in the United States having been lower during the beginning of the past season, the French lard imports were rather larger in 1903 than in 1902. There would have been a greater increase but for the abundance of native hog fats, and also the fact that American prices took an upward turn again later in the season.

The imports of lard into France for consumption in 1903, 1902, and 1901 were 3,654 tons, 2,155 tons, and 7,240 tons, respectively, of which amounts 2,818 tons, 1,607 tons, and 6,728 tons came from the United States. The receipts of lard for consumption in France during the first eight months of 1904 were 2,306 tons, against 2,007 tons and 1,790 tons in 1903 and 1902. The imports of lard from the United States were 2,018 tons, 1,580 tons, and 1,436 tons in the first eight months of the three years, respectively.

TALLOW.

The imports of tallow into France for local consumption in 1903 were the largest for several years, being 19,225 tons, against 10,293 tons and 16,268 tons in 1902 and 1901. Of these amounts 11,849 tons, 4,677 tons, and 5,250 tons, respectively, were from the United States; next came Argentina, with 1,688 tons, 3,435 tons, and 6,409 tons, respectively. The imports into Havre in the same periods were 1,412 tons, 3,119 tons, and 3,824 tons.

The French production of tallow, like that of hog fats, has been abundant since the commencement of 1904. As a result, prices in the French market have been low and imports have fallen off.

The total imports of tallow into France for consumption during the first eight months of the present year were 6,008 tons, against 13,534 tons and 6,532 tons in 1903 and 1902, of which the United States contributed 3,442 tons, 8,445 tons, and 2,884 tons, respectively.

At present the scarcity and high price of fodder seem to be affecting the yield of tallow from cattle, and the prices have advanced considerably of late, but not so much in France as in other countries.

A. M. THACKARA, *Consul*.

HAVRE, FRANCE, *November 10, 1904.*

OIL CAKE IN FRANCE.

(From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.)

Notwithstanding the large output of the French oil mills, the French importations of oil cake and oil meal of all kinds in 1903 amounted to 127,000 metric tons, against 108,200 tons and 115,700 tons in 1902 and 1901. The exports were somewhat less, being 141,500 tons, against 147,800 tons in 1902.

The imports in the first eight months of 1904, 1903, and 1902 were 75,600 tons, 84,700 tons, and 70,700 tons, respectively; and the exports during the same period 98,400 tons, 85,000 tons, and 93,000 tons.

The imports of oil cake and meal in 1903 were valued at \$3,186,400, divided as follows: Russia, \$1,438,000; Belgium, \$743,400; United States, \$546,770; Great Britain, \$279,200; Spain, \$52,000; other countries, \$127,030; in other words, the United States furnished only 17 per cent in 1903. The imports from the United States were 21,794 tons, 24,252 tons, and 21,700 tons in 1903, 1902, and 1901. During the first eight months of 1904 they were 11,747 tons, against 14,320 tons and 16,870 tons in the corresponding months of 1903 and 1902. The greater portion of the American oil cake imported into France is entered at Havre, the amount received at that port in 1903 being 18,250 tons.

French statistics do not furnish separate figures for the different kinds, but the receipts from the United States consist of linseed, cottonseed, and corn cake.

American linseed cake is well liked in France, and the condition in which it is received is satisfactory to the local importers.

If the manufacturers of cotton-seed cake in the United States are prepared to guarantee the delivery of "prime decorticated" in good condition the local importers inform me that their orders for this product during the coming season will largely increase.

The sale of American corn cake in France could be largely increased provided our manufacturers send the quality wanted by the French consumer, and prepare the product for shipment abroad so as to insure its arriving in good condition. Only the light-colored cake is in demand, as the prejudice of the French farmer against the dark-colored cake is so great that it can only be sold at a ruinous price.

Owing to the abundant supplies of hay, oats, and forage generally from the last season's crop, the importations of oil cake into France have fallen off somewhat since the first of the year, but the prospects are bright for increased demands during the coming winter.

A. M. THACKARA, *Consul*.

HAVRE, FRANCE, *November 10, 1904.*

CANADIAN MINING DEVELOPMENTS.

(From *United States Consul Burke, St. Thomas, Ontario, Canada.*)

At the Williams iron mine, on the Algoma Central Railway, north of the Soo, new bodies or bands of hematite ore have been struck. These show a total of 23 feet of clean ore with an additional 10 feet or so of second-grade ore, in a total width of 60 feet. This is an entirely new field and if the bodies prove to be continuous may develop importance.

North of Temagami are two promising prospects, one for iron pyrites (sulphur ore) and the other for arsenical pyrites. There are also a number of other iron pyrites and arsenical properties in the district which will no doubt receive the attention of mining concerns next year.

The Huronian Company, a subsidiary concern of the Canadian Copper Company of Copper Cliffe, is rapidly completing water-power works at the high falls on the Spanish River, 4 miles north of the Canadian Pacific Railroad at the new station Turbine. The operations are on an extensive scale, the dams being of concrete, and at present the development of 11,000 horsepower is aimed at, but this may be doubled later. It is expected that the copper company's mines and smelters will be operated by this power next year at a much lower cost than in any previous period.

M. J. BURKE, *Consul.*

ST. THOMAS, ONTARIO, CANADA, *November 14, 1904.*

SWEDISH STATISTICS AND TRADE.

(From *United States Consul Bergh, Gothenburg, Sweden.*)

On October 1 the new Swedish customs regulations went into effect and will in due time considerably improve Swedish statistics, so far as origin and destination of imports and exports are concerned. According to these regulations the importer must state, among other things, in his clearance declaration the name of the country from which the goods have been bought or sent, direct or indirect, to Sweden. The complete statistics are issued so late, however, that for early reports only incomplete preliminary figures can be obtained.

Certain merchants complain of dull business. The shipowners also seem to be dissatisfied; still new steamers are bought from England or built here, and in order to get employment for the surplus tonnage the owners establish new routes. Thus Swedish steamers have recently been freighted for South Africa, and some are also to go to ports in South America, the West Indies, and the United States; one company even thinks of sending steamers to ply between Asiatic ports. Efforts are also made to extend trade and direct business

connections, and a collection of general merchandise has been sent to South Africa to be disposed of there, in order to introduce Swedish goods not known there before. Wheat has been imported direct from South American ports, and paddy direct from Rangoon. Certain commercial papers recommend that efforts be made to extend the export to Russia.

The tendency to combination between smaller manufacturing establishments continues.

As mentioned in my report of October 19,^a the crops this year were mostly below the average in quantity in this county, and even bordered on failure in certain other localities. It is reasonable to believe, therefore, that Sweden will have to import a good deal of breadstuffs and cattle fodder. This will, of course, tend further to increase the high living expenses here, and even now the Swedish newspapers admit that Sweden is one of the most expensive countries to live in.

ROBERT S. S. BERGH, *Consul*.

GOTHENBURG, SWEDEN, *October 28, 1904.*

SAILING-SHIP OWNERS' INTERNATIONAL UNION.

(*From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.*)

As a result of the general depressed condition of the carrying trade, a number of owners of British, French, and German sailing vessels of over 1,000 tons net register have formed an association called the Sailing-Ship Owners' International Union, with headquarters at Leadenhall Buildings, London. The principal object of the association is to steady freight rates. The members have entered into an agreement by which they bind themselves to accept no cargoes from the west coasts of North and South America or from Australia or New Caledonia to British and Continental ports at a freight rate less than the minimum fixed by the association. The minimum rates are as follows, per ton:

West coast of North America, calling for orders, to the United Kingdom, Havre, Antwerp, Dunkirk, or Hamburg, if loaded at San Francisco—wheat, \$5.47; flour and barley, \$5.95; if loaded at Los Angeles, San Diego, or San Pedro—wheat, flour, and barley, \$5.47; if loaded at Portland, Oreg.—wheat, flour, and barley, \$6.68; if loaded at Seattle or Tacoma—wheat, flour, and barley, \$6.44. Rates to Continental ports other than those mentioned are 60 cents per ton higher than the rates given.

West coast of South America (Chile to the United Kingdom or the Continent), calling for orders—nitrate, \$4.86; one-third less if shipped direct.

Australasia to the United Kingdom and Continent (Bordeaux to Hamburg), calling for orders, no reduction direct—wheat and flour, if

^a Published in Daily Consular Reports, No. 2126, December 7, 1904.

loaded at one port of South Australia, \$4.86; if loaded at Sydney, \$4.86; if loaded at Melbourne or Geelong, \$5.22.

New Caledonia to the United Kingdom and Continent (Bordeaux to Hamburg), calling for orders, no reduction direct—nickel ore, \$4.86; chrome ore, \$6.08.

For outward voyages from the United Kingdom or the Continent no rates of freight are specified; vessels can make the best terms possible.

It is claimed that the owners of more than 75 per cent of British, German, and French sailing ships of over 1,000 tons net register have joined the association. The statistics on June 1, 1904, as indicated in the circular issued by the association, were as follows:

Total tonnage of British, French, and German sailing ships (excluding liners) of 1,000 tons net and tonnage that has entered the International Union.

Nationality.	Total tonnage.	Tonnage entered International Union.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Great Britain	1,127,809	848,522
France	299,073	240,605
Germany	365,710	277,822
Total	1,792,592	1,366,949

A. M. THACKARA. *Consul.*

HAVRE, FRANCE, *November 10, 1904.*

IMMIGRATION INTO BRAZIL.

(From *Export*, organ of Germany's Central Union for Commercial Geography.)

According to Brazilian figures the immigration movement into Brazil for a period of years was as follows:

Number of immigrants into Brazil in the years 1875 to 1901, inclusive.

Year.	Immigrants.	Year.	Immigrants.
1875 to 1880	340,335	1891	216,659
1881	11,054	1892	86,269
1882	27,197	1893	134,805
1883	28,670	1894	60,200
1884	20,087	1895	169,524
1885	30,135	1896	144,839
1886	25,741	1897	99,693
1887	54,990	1898	40,940
1888	131,745	1899	85,130
1889	65,167	1900	29,121
1890	105,100	1901	76,292

The total number was 2,023,693, of whom 68,078 were Germans, 44,561 Austrians, 2,746 Belgians, 207,021 Spaniards, 3,339 English, 454,406 Portuguese, 39,388 Russians, 2,344 Swedes, 10,511 French, 996,814 Italians, 7,700 Swiss, and 186,785 from all other countries.

In view of the fact that fear has been expressed, if not felt, that Brazil was in danger of being Germanized, it is interesting to note that the danger is not imminent. If statistics stand for anything, these would indicate a far greater possibility of Brazil becoming an Italian, Portuguese, or even Spanish colony, than a German one; but there is no danger of either.

NOTES.

Regulating Closing-out Sales in Germany.—After a thorough discussion of the question of closing-out sales, the Chemnitz Chamber of Commerce in one of its regular meetings expressed itself in favor of a special governmental regulation of these sales, in view of their frequent abuse and utilization to dupe the public. The following resolutions were unanimously adopted with the direction that they be laid before the Saxon government as a basis for the requested legislation:

1. A closing-out sale may be announced only in case of the dissolution of partnership or the final clearing out of a special line of goods.

2. An increase in stock by purchase or otherwise in the course of a closing-out sale shall be prohibited. The seller shall be compelled to sell his goods at the announced price to any and every person who offers to buy.

3. Bankruptcy sales may be conducted alone by the receiver, and not through a third party, and no third party may designate goods for bankruptcy sales. It is desirable that the time during which bankruptcy sales may continue shall be fixed by law with due regard to the requirements in different lines of business.—*J. F. Monaghan, Consul, Chemnitz, Germany, October 25, 1904.*

Grain and Flour Trade of Chemnitz, Germany.—During the year 1903 Chemnitz imported 11,746 metric tons of grain and 28,596 tons of flour, while the export for the same year amounted to only 381 tons of grain and 2,084 tons of flour. The import trade in grain and flour was evenly distributed throughout the year. The amount shipped into the city was slightly above 1,000 tons during six months and slightly below that amount in the rest of the year. The import of flour was above 1,100 tons in every month of the year, but in no case exceeded 1,679 tons, the amount in June, 1903. Some grain importers of this city have tried to do business direct with the United States, but have found it impossible on account of the terms exacted by American exporters, who want their money when the grain is delivered at New York for shipment to the ports of Europe. Importers here claim that they get from three to six months' credit from Austria-Hungary, and for that reason do business with that country.—*J. F. Monaghan, Consul, Chemnitz, Germany, October 25, 1904.*

Grain Crop of France.—The usual estimates of the extent of the grain crop of France for the season of 1903-4 have been published. For reference I have grouped them in the following table:

Estimate of the grain crop of France, season 1903-4.

Authority.	Wheat.	Maslin.	Rye.	Oats.	Barley.
	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>	<i>Bushels.</i>
Minister of agriculture	296, 637, 560	7, 183, 361	53, 348, 965		
Bulletin des Halles	302, 617, 927	8, 435, 271	60, 963, 697	315, 428, 338	47, 363, 280
National Association of French Mill- ers	313, 180, 174				

The average consumption of wheat in France for all purposes, including sowing, is estimated at 349,000,000 bushels. Taking the estimate of the minister of agriculture, there appears to be a deficit of over 52,000,000 bushels, but as the reserve stocks are estimated at 56,750,000 bushels it is probable that France will not have to import large quantities of foreign wheat to supply the home demand.—*A. M. Thackara, Consul, Havre, France, November 10, 1904.*

Impending Changes in Austrian Tariff Rates.—Far-reaching changes in the Austro-Hungarian tariff rates may be expected before long. The commercial treaties of the Monarchy with Germany, Italy, Switzerland, and other European countries either will soon expire or have already expired and are continued only by sufferance. New treaties are being prepared, and their completion will necessitate a complete revision of the present customs tariff, or rather customs tariffs, of the dual Monarchy. All the preliminary work is already done; new schedules have been prepared by the ministry and will in all probability receive the sanction of Parliament during the coming winter. The proposed tariff, if passed, will be especially severe on a number of American imports; for instance, it will raise the duty on cotton-seed oil from \$1.96 per quintal (220.46 pounds) to \$8.12 per quintal. In 1903 the amount of cotton-seed oil imported from the United States was 142,079 quintals (31,323,056 pounds). Under the new tariff this would be subject to an additional duty of no less than \$875,206.—*Frederick W. Hosafeld, Consul, Trieste, Austria, October 31, 1904.*

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LACE AND HOSIERY TRADE OF NOTTINGHAM.

(From United States Consul Makin, Nottingham, England.)

LACE BUSINESS.

An impression has been created in this community that the export lace trade was dying out—an impression fostered if not caused by the pessimism of lace manufacturers. But the statistics of the board of trade show that lace exports are greater this year than last. Precise figures for this district are not tabulated, but those for the whole country are approximately the same, for while considerable lace is made in other parts of the Kingdom, the quantity is relatively small, and most of it is gathered in Nottingham for finishing, or because at this point the lace exporting firms of the country are mainly congregated. As nearly as can be ascertained, the export of laces from all the rest of the Kingdom is in value about one-tenth of that from Nottingham alone; and most of the export from other points is of Nottingham lace, gathered at these points—at Manchester, for instance—and combined with shipments of other textiles. The board of trade figures are therefore substantially Nottingham's. These show lace exports in the first nine months of this year to the value of \$13,500,000, against \$12,670,000 in the corresponding period of 1903.

Local lace exporters admit the increase, but explain it differently. Optimists say that it is evidence of the steadily growing foreign trade of Nottingham. Pessimists assert that the increase is illusory; that it is a mere spurt in one branch of the trade—that of nets—to supply unusual demands from St. Gall and other Continental net-consuming centers; that the export trade in laces in general has been unusually bad this year. It is agreed, however, that the trade with South America and with some of the British colonies has been remarkably good, though the drought in Australia is claimed to have materially curtailed lace purchases there. It is also agreed that the home trade is and has been through the year in a deplorable state, its deficiency more than counterbalancing the increase in exports, thus making the lace trade, on the whole, worse this year than last.

That there must have been a great increase in some direction in the lace export trade is manifest from the decline of nearly 20 per cent in the shipments to the United States shown by the declared values of exports from this district for the first nine months of 1904. Both optimists and pessimists agree, however, that the general situation is unsat-

isfactory and has been for several years past. Of the foreign trade, though on the whole it annually increases, everybody has some cause of complaint; firms dealing with Russia suffer from the present war; Australia has been crippled by drought; Germany offers direct competition besides heightening its tariff barrier, and so on. Furthermore, the British exports of lace include some foreign-made goods brought hither and sent out with the shipments of home goods. But this item, we are told, is not large, and some exporters say that it is decreasing.

The growth in the British lace export trade in recent years is so small as to be scarcely better than a decline; it hardly keeps pace with the natural increase of population, and evidently does not keep up with the increased number of firms engaged in the business, who are splitting it into smaller and smaller portions and steadily reducing its profits through competition.

Lace makers bitterly complain of the unscrupulous stealing of their designs by foreigners, against which, it is asserted, the laws afford no protection except at ruinous cost in legal expenses. This injustice, it is claimed, seriously cuts into the trade of the British manufacturer.

Aside from the disturbing effect of the unsatisfactory lace trade, the prosperity of this city is seriously threatened by the establishment of new lace factories in the villages of the surrounding country. Some factories are being moved bodily from this city, while many entirely new ones have been established outside. Both classes threaten disastrous competition to the factories remaining in the city. In these villages 1,600 lace machines employ 2,500 men. The number of machines at work in the city is not accurately stated, but is now presumably less, for they employ only 2,200 men. For the past twenty years some lace has been made in outside towns, but only recently has the movement from the city become a really serious matter.

The prime cause of the movement is the lower cost of production in the country, where both land and labor are cheap. The lace makers' union lacks the grip there that it holds on the city. While all the urban lace factories are union-tied, the country factories employ four-fifths nonunionists, and pay a wage scale materially less than that of the city. Besides, the country factories are generally equipped with new machines of broader gauge and greater effectiveness than those in the city. Naturally, the urban manufacturers are at their wits' end. They dare not risk installing new machines, with the wage scale against them, and the only alternative seems to be to close up entirely or move to the country.

The desperate situation has led to conferences between operators and operatives, with a view to a readjustment of wages. Both sides are equally interested, but it would seem that the operatives must yield if they wish continued employment. The issue is not so much that the

employee shall work for a less wage per week as that restrictions which reduce the work accomplished by the operative shall be removed, for, while the operative's price per rack—the unit of lace measure—is from one-third to one-half less in the country than in town, the country operative produces far more and gets more pay at the week's end than the urban worker.

Operators and operatives have recently been thrashing out this subject through a local newspaper. The former lay the blame to an inelastic and out-of-date wage scale and restrictive methods of work imposed by the lace-makers' union. The operatives lay the blame to want of up-to-date machinery. An outside element charges the competition of France, Germany, and Switzerland with the chief responsibility—competition made possible by British shortsightedness and lack of enterprise. Continental manufacturers, it is alleged, have invented machinery to make lace of new designs which have captured the popular fancy, while Nottingham has plodded along in its old rut, allowing the new designs not only to supplant the British in foreign markets but even here in its home market. It is said that the patent for one of these new machines was hawked about in Nottingham and nobody would touch it; that then it was taken to the Continent, where it was greedily snapped up, and that its product is now actually being sold in large quantities in Nottingham stores, to the exclusion of the home lace. This latter view does not satisfactorily explain why lace mills should go from this city to the villages, except as it indicates that the backwardness of local manufacturers has so reduced their business that they are forced to adopt cheaper means of production. The essential fact remains that the advantage is now with the village mills, and that the city is compelled to do something or lose what remains to it. The only recourse seems to be an agreement between employers and workmen, and this, it is hoped, the pending conferences will bring about.

Silk nets originated and were once made almost wholly in this city. Now that branch is practically extinct here. It has gone chiefly to Lyon, France, where those nets are made on machines from this city. The explanation is the difference in wages, the rate in this city demanded by the union being three times that in Lyon.

The making of lace curtains has also in large part gone from this city, chiefly to Scotland, where labor is said to cost but half the Nottingham price. The pending conferences between local employers and employees contemplate drawing back this branch if possible. Nottingham firms own the principal Scottish mills and bring their product here for marketing, and they would naturally prefer to have their factories near at hand. Much of the lace-curtain business, however, is lost forever. The establishing of factories in the United States, where, it is said, the largest lace-curtain mill in the world is now

located, has reduced Nottingham curtain exports thither to a negligible quantity. The only compensation is the export of machinery to America, but that is relatively small in value, and it involves, besides, the steady loss of expert British lace makers and draftsmen.

That the curtain trade with the United States is being destroyed by the American import duty is universally admitted, and protectionists reason that the lace trade in general would be improved by adopting the fiscal methods of other countries. Figures are quoted showing that Great Britain's lace exports to protected countries are declining, stationary, or growing very slowly, while lace imports from those countries, excluding America, are increasing by leaps and bounds. French and German duties on lace goods, it is claimed, have drawn Nottingham machines to those countries, which now not only make laces for their own markets, but even flood the English market with their product. This view has taken such strong hold that practically all the local lace exporters are protectionists.

The disastrous effect of the dull trade upon the workmen is indicated by the statement that the financial help being given to unemployed lace makers is much greater than last year. In this city the outlay is more than the payments being made into the fund by employed workmen. Without speedy improvement, the out-of-work benefits must be materially reduced in amount.

My own judgment is that the root of the trouble with the British lace business is the characteristic conservatism of the Englishman, which leads him to look askance at anything new, and his fixed confidence in the absolute superiority of everything produced in his country. I say this with the greatest liking for the Englishman. He is sincere, conscientious, enterprising when convinced, and thoroughly honest and honorable. I refer only to what may once have been an element of strength, but is now a weakness. He is beginning to realize this himself, and in that is his greatest hope for the future.

The lace industry would, it is believed, be much benefited by some organized system of technical education. Some lectures on lace production and some lessons in lace designing are given here, but they are too irregular and sporadic to excite much interest or to be of material service. The present straits of the industry are directing public attention to the imperative need of measures to meet the tide of competition, and the thorough training of experts in lace designing and production is believed to be a prime necessity.

Though the villages are taking the bulk of lace making from the city, the finishing of the raw product and the marketing of the completed article still remain here, and are in no danger of being lost. All the facilities for finishing are centered in this city, and the work can not be done cheaper elsewhere, while from the beginning of making lace by machine in England, Nottingham has been the mecca of all

buyers. No other place is so well situated as Nottingham to be the point of concentration, and it would be ruinous to split the market up into a lot of little markets and distribute them about among the villages which weave the lace. The finishing and marketing of the lace are, in fact, more important to Nottingham than the weaving. These industries give employment to nearly 10,000 people in the "lace market," a compact district of large buildings, perhaps a third of a mile square, and finishing plants are scattered all about the town, while much work is given out to women and girls to be done at home. Altogether, probably 15,000 Nottingham people find steady employment in good times in this branch of the lace trade—five times as many as the mills employ.

HOSIERY AND UNDERWEAR.

The manufacture of hosiery and underwear ranks next in importance to that of lace in this district, but owing mainly to German competition, the industry has been much depressed for several years. The Germans are somehow able to produce at less cost than the Englishmen, and besides are said to have a certain advantage in dyes. Formerly the German was a competitor in cotton hose alone, but now he seems to be taking possession of every branch of the trade.

The gross exports of hosiery from the whole country increased about 5 per cent during the first nine months of this year over those of the same period of 1903, but from this district there has been a slight decline. The home trade has been very poor. Much machinery is idle, but recently some hopeful signs have been noted. Orders for underwear improve, the price of cotton appears to be settling to a stable basis, and increased activity among machine builders is reported.

FRANK W. MAHIN, *Consul*.

NOTTINGHAM, ENGLAND, *October 31, 1904.*

FALSE DESCRIPTIONS IN BILLS OF LADING.

(*From United States Consul Halstead, Birmingham, England.*)

In a London court yesterday there were three convictions upon complaint of the Midland Railway Company against the agent in London of a line of steamers between Ostend and Tilbury Docks, London, for "misdescribing" three consignments of goods sent over the Midland Railway in such a manner as to "defraud the company of the proper charges leviable thereon." There was much interest in the fact that this railway company has followed the example of the London and North Western and successfully prosecuted for misdeclarations of foreign freight coming into Great Britain, for English manufacturers have, when prosecuted by railway companies, claimed that greater frauds were being practiced by foreign shippers to England.

The barrister who appeared for the Midland Railway Company stated that officers of the railway clearing house had found 206 out of 290 consignments sent by this steamship line to be "misdeclared against the company;" that no less than 100 notices had been sent to the agent of the steamship line, and no answer had been received from him; that it was a serious question, as the misdeclaration in this case enabled the foreign trader to get 25 per cent off his rates; that in each of the three cases which the company selected for prosecution the description of the goods which had been given to the custom-house had differed from that on the consignment note; and that the money lost by the railway company was 4s. 1d. (98 cents) in the first case, 1s. 1d. (26 cents) in the second, and 2s. 8d. (64 cents) in the third.

The lawyer for the defendant stated that he desired to have the case tried on its merits, and did not draw any distinction between the steamship company and its agent; but he contended that there was no evidence that the misdeclarations had been made with intent to avoid the payment of the proper charges, that the defendant and his company were merely carriers like the Midland Railway Company, and that the prosecution, if successful, would place them in a ridiculous position, as they had no way of knowing the contents of the cases. "All that the defendant's clerk did in this case was to copy out the information given on the documents received by them from abroad." "The person blameworthy was the foreign shipper, and not the innocent shipowner;" but the judge decided that the defendant was liable to conviction.

The London and North Western Railway Company recently prosecuted a firm of Continental importers who, by misdeclaring the nature of goods consigned by them over that line from Tilbury Docks, London, to Birmingham, had been obtaining lower rates than those to which the carriers of the goods were entitled by the general railway classification. The fine imposed was the maximum one of £10 (\$48.67) for each offense. These two incidents have been very gratifying to English traders.

The Birmingham Chamber of Commerce has been very active in the misdeclaration matter, and, as a writer of a card to the Times put it, "doing its best to expose and put down a practice which penalizes honest merchants for the benefit of their less scrupulous competitors." This writer urges that the cooperation of the companies and the traders is urgently needed, but expresses the fear that through the laxity of both this practice of misdeclaration has been allowed to take deep root, adding, "It is probably no exaggeration to say that a knowledge of how far it is safe to go in 'dodging' the English railway classification is a most important part of the stock in trade of not a few firms and individuals whose business it is to consign traffic by

rail, and that some railway officials even are not indisposed to collusion in such practices, if thereby they can steal a march upon a competitive line.

The Birmingham Chamber of Commerce and the railways "have now shown the way to a better state of things, and their action deserves the sympathy and support of every honest trader. 'Misdeclaration' is a weapon whereby firms who are not ashamed to write untruths upon their consignment notes obtain an 'undue preference' in the matter of railway rates over straightforward dealers. Conversely, it is a means by which the unscrupulous agents of one railway divert traffic from a competitive line, the covert suggestion, 'Oh, call it so and so,' being equivalent to the offer of a lower rate than that agreed among the companies through the railway clearing house."

MARSHAL HALSTEAD, *Consul*.

BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND, *October 14, 1904.*

AMERICAN MANUFACTURES IN NOTTINGHAM.

(From United States Consul Martin, Nottingham, England.)

Though no figures are obtainable as to the amount and value of imports into this consular district, there is, apparently, on the whole an increase this year over 1903. The poor crops last year enhanced the demand for foreign foodstuffs. United States products continue in prime favor, and there is no sign of a decline in their use, excepting that American shoes are, I fear, losing ground. British shoe dealers make strenuous efforts to prejudice the public against them. For instance, a dilapidated, burst-out shoe of manifestly poor quality, labeled "American," will be seen in a store window alongside a beautifully made, fine quality shoe, labeled "British." Stores selling American shoes push them all they can, but they are in a minority of one to a hundred. Furthermore, factories in this section are now making shoes on American lasts and with American machinery, and seem to be fairly satisfying the consumers, who prefer the shapely American styles to the broad, flat British patterns. Things American are in such general and popular use that it can hardly be said that there are openings for the introduction of any more. No American silverware is sold here, nor can it be sold here until it is made to please the British fancy, which demands plain and heavy ware. The light, ornate silverware of our country has tried in vain to find a purchaser here. Much American office furniture is sold in this district, but practically no American house furniture. The British is claimed to be better made and longer wearing. It is probable that American silverware and house furniture would find a good market here if British tastes were consulted. The peculiar theory of the British trade-unions,

that to prolong a job to the utmost makes more work, makes such articles—furniture in particular—very expensive. It would seem that American methods ought to enable Americans to offer similar goods at lower prices.

The use of boxes made of American shooks has grown to large proportions in this district. Great Britain is a peculiarly favorable country, the shooks being admitted duty free. American shooks were first used here in August, 1901. By January 1, 1902, 3,334 boxes had been certified at this consulate. In 1902, the number certified was 8,430; in 1903, 15,348. In the first nine months of this year, 9,642. This shows an absolute decline since last year, but a relative gain when the reduced value of the invoices to which the shook certificates were attached is considered. There is room for but little more gain here, for by frequently calling attention to the economy of American shooks, this consulate has brought into line all the regular exporters who can use such boxes.

FRANK W. MAHIN, *Consul*.

NOTTINGHAM, ENGLAND, *October 31, 1904.*

PRESERVED FRUITS FOR CHINESE TRADE.

(*From United States Consul Anderson, Hangchow, China.*)

Among the constantly increasing foreign population of this part of China and, indeed, among the native people who have come to imitate foreign ways to a greater or less extent, there exists a strong and never-failing demand for preserved fruits and fruit jams, the latter being more like the American preserve than what is known as jam in America. This trade in preserved fruits and jams has existed for years, the goods having been supplied from Europe in some cases for more than half a century. The demand for this class of goods exists all over the world where Americans and Europeans live, especially where people from the British Islands reside. Present indications are that it will be far greater in the near future than it ever has been before.

Apparently there is no reason why the greater portion of this trade should not be American, although at present the American part of it is, comparatively, very small. In the United States there are vast quantities of the sort of fruit needed for these goods going to waste every season. One of the staple articles in this line is orange marmalade. The European, particularly the British make, is used all over the world. It is to be found on every steamboat and dining car and in every hotel in Canada and British colonies generally, and on almost every steamship and in almost every hotel outside of the United States. It is in common use in some parts of the United States. Yet the

writer has seen going to waste in California hundreds of bushels of oranges which were faulty in some respect, so that it would not pay to pack and ship them, but which would have been excellent for the manufacture of this marmalade. The same is true of strawberry, blackberry, and apple jams; these are standard out here, and the demand for them is strong and permanent. With the fruit stock for them going to waste in all fruit-growing States, and with comparatively cheap sugar, it surely would be to the advantage of American fruit canners to enter the world's markets in competition with concerns which are compelled to import everything entering into the product.

Several points must be regarded by American manufacturers in this connection. The product must be made from good fruit and good sugar, and none of the cheapening elements of ordinary cheap jams and preserves must be allowed in its manufacture. The product must be put up in small packages, 1-pound tins being a popular size. Of course, it must be packed to stand any climate. These 1-pound tins (1 pound and 3 ounces gross) retail in the cheaper stores in Chinese coast cities at 30 cents Mexican, about 14 cents gold. Retail profits on this class of goods are lower in China than in most countries. The goods should be pushed with the usual advertising methods of American business men.

American preserves and jams as at present made do not seem to be popular here, chiefly because they are not of the higher grade. British business men now have most all the trade here, probably because they have been at it longer.

The most casual study of the trade situation in China will convince anyone that the needs of the people and their desires in the way of proper packages, packing, and standard goods must be met. Trade can not be forced by the sheer force of what American business men are accustomed to do. The actual living demand as it exists must be met.

Until the Chinese people generally revolutionize their methods of drying and preserving fruits and improve their horticulture in some lines there will be a constantly increasing demand here for American fruit products, both with the foreign population and with the better educated and more progressive Chinese people.

GEORGE E. ANDERSON, *Consul*.

HANGCHOW, CHINA, *October 9, 1904.*

TRADE OF ZITTAU.

(From United States Vice and Deputy Consul Smith, Zittau, Germany.)

The year 1903 was, on the whole, a fairly good one, especially in the textile and iron trades, whereas this year the former have suffered much on account of the drought, which necessitated the discontinuance of the river and canal shipping early in the year. Usually raw materials coming from abroad to this district—cotton, wool, and yarns—on arrival in Hamburg are unloaded directly into barges, several of which are towed together up the river Elbe as far as Dresden, whence the goods reach their destination by rail. The same means of transport are utilized to a great extent for forwarding the piece goods to the customers. The charges on freight from Hamburg to this point by barge are 5.05 marks (\$1.20) per 100 kilograms (220 pounds), and by rail 7.05 marks (\$1.68), the difference being nearly one-fourth of a cent per pound.

By far the most important industry of this consular district is the manufacture of textile goods, there being 360 manufacturing establishments, employing 40,150 work people, against 363 employing 38,789 in 1902. The fact that there has been a slight decrease in the number of mills and yet a marked increase in the number of work people is accounted for by several firms having enlarged their establishments.

The article of chief importance in trade relations with the United States is linen, the declared exports of which for the fiscal year 1904 were valued at \$1,013,548.26, out of a total export value of \$1,425,324.11. Employment in this industry has been good, and during the first half of 1903 prices remained firm, with an upward tendency. In the second half of the year came reports of bad flax crops, which proved to be only two-thirds of the normal and of inferior quality. This made prices suddenly rise and stimulated buying, contracts being made in many cases for some six to nine months ahead; consequently manufacturers were well employed during the first half of this year. The manufacture of this product was further stimulated through the neglect of "unions" of cotton and linen goods on account of the high prices of cotton.

Cotton manufacture has also enjoyed a good year as regards employment, but the margin of profit has been exceedingly small. Higher prices had to be paid for raw material, which could not be obtained for the woven articles. The exports of cotton goods to the United States are, compared with the importance of the industry, very small. Roumania, Holland, and Switzerland are extensive buyers and should attract the attention of American manufacturers. The cotton manufacturers have made strenuous efforts to induce the Zittau Chamber

of Commerce to prevail on the Government to assist cotton growing in the German colonies in Africa, in order to become independent of the American growers, and to avoid high speculative prices. Samples of colonial-grown cotton have already been tried in this district, and found to be of good quality, but it is very doubtful if this cotton will be able to compete with the American-grown article.

Mohair and luster goods are also extensively manufactured here, but business in these has not been entirely satisfactory.

Machine makers have been kept fairly busy; but only those making special dyeing and finishing machinery can show satisfactory profits. This year loom makers are feeling the effects of the disturbances in the East, Russia being commonly a good market for their articles.

Crops in 1903 were very good all round, both in quantity and in quality, grain especially being good and abundant. This year the reverse is true, except in the case of corn, which has done exceedingly well; but other grains and hay have suffered much from lack of rain. The potato crop, on which the poorer classes are largely dependent, has been a partial failure.

HERBERT SMITH, *Vice and Deputy Consul.*

ZITTAU, GERMANY, *October 29, 1904.*

SEED-OIL BUSINESS IN ENGLAND.

(From United States Consul Hamm, Hull, England.)

As Hull is the center of the seed-oil business in England, the situation in this industry here can be taken as an index of the condition of the trade in the United Kingdom. That it is not prosperous will be seen from the following extract printed in the Hull Daily Mail of November 10, 1904:

The trade in cotton-seed oil, the staple product of Hull, is languishing on account of the very severe American competition, and the prospect before the crusher is very dark. There has been a very heavy American cotton crop, and this will produce an enormous increase in cotton seed suitable for crushing, the natural result being that prices will be kept down. The Hull crushers are dependent for their supplies upon Egypt, but the growers there are holding the cotton seed with a view of squeezing the most they can out of their Hull customers. The consequence is that the cost of the raw material in Hull is so high that it is impossible to crush at a profit. The Americans are making the most of their chances by underselling the Hull merchants, not only on the Continent, but actually in Liverpool and Glasgow. America's ability to dump its goods in England at a price at which even Hull is unable to compete—and this after paying freight—must give cause for reflection. It is hard that Hull should be shut out from Continental markets, but that it is obliged to acknowledge its inability to hold its home markets shows conclusively that all is not well with the trade.

The above rather gloomy statement does not probably exaggerate the situation. American competition has been pressing closer and closer upon the seed-oil manufacturers in this city, and the condition here undoubtedly represents that in all England. The American seed-oil producers have the great advantage of being able to obtain their raw material at home and of having their mills equipped with the latest machinery, while the English seed-oil producers are compelled to obtain their raw material from Egypt. The cost of freight from that country more than offsets the cheaper cost of labor, and so enables the American manufacturer of seed oil to undersell his English competitor.

The latest quotations for cotton seed in the markets of Hull are \$27.97 per ton for Egyptian and \$23.17 per ton for Bombay. The total imports of cotton seed since January at this port have been about 195,000 tons. The imports of oil cake so far this year at Hull have been 16,350 tons, and the exports of cotton-seed oil 7,358 tons.

WALTER C. HAMM, *Consul*.

HULL, ENGLAND, *November 10, 1904.*

COMMERCE OF SWITZERLAND IN 1903.

(*From United States Consul Morgan, Lucerne, Switzerland.*)

The commerce of Switzerland for the year ended December 31, 1903, amounted to \$416,937,316 (imports, \$239,233,001; exports, \$177,704,315) and was greater than for any preceding year. The imports exceeded those of 1902 by \$13,530,858 and the exports exceeded those of 1902 by \$2,843,296. Germany, with her army of commercial travelers in the country, heads the list of sellers to Switzerland with \$71,160,553, an increase over the sales in the corresponding period of last year of \$6,274,049, and then follow France, Italy, Austria, Russia, and the United States in the order named. Germany also heads the list as a buyer from Switzerland, with \$40,422,556, a decrease from the purchases of the corresponding period of last year of \$140,552; then came Great Britain with \$34,520,878, showing a decrease of \$1,742,573, and the United States with \$23,373,725, which shows an increase of \$1,576,391, and represents 13.15 per cent of the entire export of the country. Besides the actual export from Switzerland to the United States, as shown by the commercial statistics published by the Federal customs department, there are undoubtedly many hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth of articles bought by the army of American tourists who yearly invade the country, of which no record is possible.

Some idea of the industrial energy and activity of the little Republic may be given by the statement that its exports, which represent almost entirely manufactured articles, amount to \$6 per annum for

every man, woman, and child in the country, which is possibly greater export per capita than is shown by any other country of Europe.

The commerce of Switzerland with the United States was not as favorable to the latter as in former years. The imports from the United States to Switzerland decreased \$832,270, while the exports to the United States increased \$1,576,391. Switzerland bought of us \$4,209,052 worth of raw cotton and returned it to us in manufactured articles valued at \$11,224,365. Articles of silk manufacture from Switzerland were sold us to the declared value of \$6,148,147. A reduction of over \$2,000,000 is noted in the import of food stuffs into Switzerland from the United States, due entirely to the decreased import of wheat. The export of food stuffs from Switzerland to the United States amounted to \$1,665,331, against \$1,352,539 for the corresponding period of 1902, an increase of \$313,791. The export of chocolate to the United States is assuming large proportions. It is only within the last few years that Swiss chocolate has been sent to the United States. During the past year nearly \$300,000 worth was sold us. All chocolate factories in the country are working to their fullest capacity and the increased demand for Swiss chocolate, not only in the United States, but throughout Europe, has made it necessary for the chocolate manufacturers to increase their plants, and many new companies have started up within the past year.

HENRY H. MORGAN, *Consul*.

LUCERNE, SWITZERLAND, *November 3, 1904.*

FRENCH TRADE IN FRESH AND DRIED FRUITS.

(From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.)

Owing to the almost total failure of the French fruit crop last season the importations of American dried and fresh fruits into France during 1903 assumed unusual proportions.

In the following table are given the imports of fresh and dried apples and other dried fruits into France for consumption (*commerce spécial*) in the past three years. The bulk of the dried fruit was of American origin. The weights given are net in all cases but that of fresh apples and pears.

Imports of fresh and dried apples and pears and other dried fruits into France in 1901, 1902, and 1903.

Fruits.	1901.	1902.	1903.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Pounds.</i>
Dried apples for table use (evaporated apples).....	429,000	506,000	2,381,000
Chopped apples for cider making	3,457,000	6,770,000	17,972,000
Dried prunes	1,225,000	12,943,000	29,676,000
Other dried fruits, including apricots	4,768,000	6,738,000	10,531,000
Fresh apples and pears (gross weight).....	9,613,000	22,336,000	27,289,000

In the following table are given the imports of dried and fresh apples and other dried fruits into the whole of France in the first eight months of the last three years :

Imports of fresh and dried apples and pears and other dried fruits into France during the first eight months of 1902, 1903, and 1904.

Fruits.	1902.	1903.	1904.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Fresh apples and pears.....	1,873	5,888	3,847
Dried apples for table use (evaporated apples).....	112	484	1,438
Chopped apples for cider making.....	1,870	5,995	7,618
Dried prunes.....	1,011	9,391	9,170
Other dried fruits, including apricots.....	460	2,253	2,502

As the fruit crop of France this year is unusually abundant the demand for American fruits during the coming season will be restricted, and the imports from the United States will show a great falling off. All fruits are selling at very low prices. The prospects are that there will be a limited demand for the larger sizes of American prunes—the 20–30's, 30–40's, and 40–50's—and, perhaps, for the smaller sizes, as the local importers inform me that owing to the dryness of the season the small native prunes have dried out more than usual, and are not so fleshy as the American prunes. In many localities cider apples are a drug on the market, selling as low as 15 francs (\$2.90) a metric ton, which hardly pays for the packing and hauling to market.

There will also be a limited demand for American dried apricots, as the American fruit is greatly appreciated in France and seems to fill a want which can not be supplied by the native product. Of the new season's fruit, 10,350 boxes of American apricots were received at Havre during September just passed. Light-colored fruits, technically called "bright goods," are those most wanted in the French market.

In my opinion, there will be a small trade during the coming season in the best grades of American apples for table use. Only the first qualities should be selected, and those which are in proper condition to stand the ocean journey; all showing bruises should be rejected. Apples which are wrapped in paper and packed in the barrel with enough pressure to prevent any motion of the fruit arrive in the best condition and command the highest prices.

Unusual care in the preparation and shipment of American fruit will be necessary this season, as the French market is not so dependent on the American supply as it has been for the last two years.

A. M. THACKARA, *Consul.*

HAVRE, FRANCE, *November 10, 1904.*

BUILDING OF IMITATION SANDSTONE IN STETTIN.*(From United States Consul Kehl, Stettin, Germany.)*

To Stettin belongs the distinction of erecting the first imitation sandstone or béton building in northern Germany. The building is being erected by the Prussian Government, and is known as the "Landesversicherungs-Gebäude," the meaning of which is Government Insurance Building. The main staircase railing is of imitation red granite and has a polish equal to that attained on the real article; it is only by close inspection that one can detect that it is imitation. The various halls and stairs will all be of béton. I am informed that this is the first building in Germany in which the use of béton has been carried to this limit.

The skeleton or framework of the building is of very common brick faced with properly fitted pieces of imitation sandstone, cement being used in setting and joining the various pieces. All the blocks, window frames, sills, columns, roof, balcony, and portal ornaments are so exactly cast and numbered that they fit and set in with little or no chiseling. If chiseling is necessary, it can be done as with real stone.

To obtain the effect of ordinary granite, ground black marble is used; for red granite, red marble is used. The outer shell of this imitation stonework is from 3 to 5 centimeters (1.18 to 1.97 inches) thick, and is of fine-ground quality, while the filling is coarse ground. Wood forms are used for ordinary block work; for fancy pieces, such as curves, scrolls, figures, etc., plaster of Paris molds are used. All the pressing or stamping is done by hand. From three to four weeks are required for natural drying. The stones are sold by metric measurement and ornaments by the piece, and the claim is made that imitation is 50 per cent cheaper and just as durable as the real article.

The best formula for mixing béton is said to be as follows: 1 part cement, 3 parts sand, 5 parts ground stone.

JOHN E. KEHL, *Consul*.

STETTIN, GERMANY, *October 20, 1904.*

Weaving in Hungary.—In Hungary, according to the Royal Hungarian Commercial Museum, a weaver operates 3 looms of ordinary mechanism, or 15 Northrop looms. Bobbin shuttles are used and threaded by mouth suction. The looms cost in Hungary anywhere from 400 to 1,000 crowns (\$81.20 to \$203). They weave from 3 to 4 yards of crude cotton cloth per hour. Weavers work weekly about sixty-five hours and receive from 12 to 16 crowns (\$2.44 to \$3.25) per week. The Northrop machine is used and manufactured in large numbers by the Hungarian Textile Industry Company (Limited), at Rózsahegy, Liptó County, in north Hungary. It is estimated that about 5,000 to 6,000 cotton looms are in use in Hungary.—*Frank Dyer Chester, Consul-General, Budapest, Hungary, October 13, 1904.*

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PETROLEUM WAR IN GERMANY.

(From United States Consul Monaghan, Chemnitz, Germany.)

PREFERENTIAL RATES FOR RUSSIAN PETROLEUM.

Through the medium of the Chemnitz Chamber of Commerce a petition was addressed to the Saxon Railroad for the institution of a preferential freight rate on shipments of petroleum coming from Russia intended for cities in the Chemnitz district. In support of this plea it was pointed out that the monopoly of the German-American Petroleum Company is ruinous and unjust; that Russian petroleum is satisfactory for consumption; that preferential rates have been in vogue for shipments of Russian petroleum to Leipzig and Dresden since 1897, and that hence it is only fair to extend this advantage to the important petroleum-consuming district of Chemnitz. Negotiations having the extension of this privilege in view have been inaugurated with good prospects of success.

Germany has for many years been watching with apprehension the growing influence of the Standard Oil Company, and is putting forth every effort to find some source of effective competition. Figures are apparently against her, but judging from numerous articles which recently appeared in leading papers all over the country, she bases her hopes largely on the development of the other great oil fields of the world, those of Russia, Austria-Hungary, and Roumania, chiefly.

THE WORLD'S OUTPUT OF PETROLEUM.

In 1902 Russia supplied over 11,500,000 tons, or more than 51 per cent, of the world's product of petroleum; the United States produced not quite 10,000,000 tons, or 41 per cent, of the world's product; the rest was divided among Galicia, a province in Austria, 573,440 tons; Roumania, 320,000 tons; Sunda Islands, 380,000 tons; India, 180,000; Japan, 120,000 tons; Germany, 50,000 tons; South America, 15,000 tons; Italy, 2,800 tons.

The following figures, taken from Brackel and Leiss's *The Thirty Years' Petroleum War*, a book which created a sensation at the time of its publication, some months ago, are of interest in this connection in that they show clearly the development of the prominent oil fields of the world.

Production of petroleum in the United States and European countries.

Year.	United States.	Russia.	Austria-Hungary.	Roumania.	Germany.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1859.....	264				
1860.....	66,000	5,000		3,618	
1870.....	694,418	28,728		10,590	
1875.....	1,605,452	136,240		15,100	781
1885.....	2,885,360	1,904,380		22,000	5,815
1888.....	3,644,787	3,183,418	64,824	30,400	11,920
1891.....	7,166,541	4,766,568	87,717	50,600	15,315
1894.....	6,513,476	5,161,707	132,000	64,530	17,232
1896.....	6,981,780	7,056,537	214,810	76,000	17,061
1897.....	7,983,768	7,831,636	309,626	110,000	23,303
1899.....	7,554,928	8,961,067	316,384	250,000	27,027
1900.....	8,329,279	9,833,820	326,334	250,000	50,375
1901.....	9,158,373	11,242,249	452,200	270,000	44,095

ROUMANIAN OIL FOR GERMANY.

Much hope is placed by Germany in the development of the Roumanian oil fields. In 1899 one well alone is reported to have produced 70 wagon loads of oil per day for a period of thirty-three days. The oil fields lie at no great distance from Germany. The Danube offers ideal river transportation into the heart of German territory. The cost of production of 100 kilograms (220.46 pounds) of refined Roumanian oil is estimated at 3 francs (57.9 cents), which is lower, it is claimed, than in any other country. Moreover, the Roumanian crude oil, it is claimed, produces 61.3 per cent of refined oil, while the Pennsylvania oil produces but 47 per cent.

AUSTRIAN OIL FOR GERMANY.

The Austrian oil fields have experienced a rapid development during the last few years. In 1902, 573,440 tons were produced. So rapid has been the increase that the Austrian markets are reported to be overcrowded. It is estimated that a surplus of several million gallons of oil was at hand last year. Recently the German Bank at Berlin offered to buy up the entire surplus and use it in beginning competition against the Standard Oil Company. It is proposed to establish centers all over Germany for the distribution of the oil. Relations have also been established, according to reports, with the Austrian Bank-Verein and the Hungarian Bank with a view of enlisting these institutions in a campaign against the Standard Oil Company.

THE AMERICAN OIL COMPANY IN SAXONY.

Complaints against the arbitrary action of the German-American Petroleum Company, which established headquarters at Chemnitz last year, are numerous. This company drew all the local trade to itself by entering into contracts with local dealers or paying a certain amount of damages to dealers who agreed to give up the petroleum trade for three years. By inaugurating the system of tank wagons

for all the neighboring cities, among which are Limbach, Oederan, Annaberg, Marienberg, Hohenstein, and Glauchau, it forced the entire local wholesale trade to the wall. At the present time the company delivers to retailers alone, but it is feared that this is merely a transitory stage in the development of its plans, and that before long the time will come when these retailers, too, will be forced out and deliveries made direct to the consumer.

While the Pure Oil Company, of Hamburg, claims to be entirely independent of the German-American Petroleum Company, it has been frequently pointed out by German statisticians and industrial writers that the former concern adjusts its prices in close harmony with those of the latter—a *prima facie* sign of cooperation rather than competition. As a remedy for the monopolistic design of the American oil magnates the German industrial press in all quarters is advocating the importation and consumption of Russian and Roumanian oil and the investment of German capital for the development of these promising oil fields.

J. F. MONAGHAN, *Consul*.

CHEMNITZ, GERMANY, *October 25, 1904.*

UNIFICATION OF GERMAN RAILWAYS.

(*From United States Secretary of Embassy Dodge, Berlin, Germany.*)

The idea of uniting all the railways in Germany under one management appears lately to have gained ground. It will be remembered that Prince Bismarck desired to have the Empire both own and manage all the German railways, but was prevented from accomplishing his desire by the southern German governments, which feared to give too great powers to the Empire and to Prussia. Consequently the German railways were not purchased by the Empire, but by each German government individually, and those of each have been managed independently. This has caused great disadvantages to the German railways, particularly to those of the smaller governments. An example of the waste of independent management is that whole trains of freight cars are often obliged to make long return journeys empty, because they belong to another government and therefore can not be loaded. Complaints have also often been made against the Prussian government for favoring the railways of one State to the detriment of those of another. It is said that Saxony has suffered in this way.

Of late years, owing largely to the commercial depression which Germany has been passing through, the railways of the small States have not been giving good financial reports. Those of Prussia, however, on account of their great extent and excellent management, have stood the strain remarkably well.

As it seemed hopeless to secure the railways for the Empire, Prussia has for a number of years been trying to induce the other States to agree to some compromise which would secure the chief advantages of a united system while leaving the ownership to the various governments. A plan was proposed for uniting as many of the railways as possible under one management without affecting their ownership, and allowing them also to retain, to a certain extent, their individuality and national character. Up to the present only the small Duchy of Hesse has actually made such an arrangement with Prussia.

Lately, however, the initiative in this matter has been taken by some of the southern German governments themselves, which called a meeting to consider plans for uniting the management of the German railways. Accordingly, the railway ministers of most of the southern German governments met at Heidelberg during this month, where the Prussian minister of railways, Herr von Budde, joined them. The results of this meeting seem to have been satisfactory, and it now looks as though the unification of the management of all the German railways might actually take place in the not very distant future. Saxony and even Bavaria appear to be willing to support such a plan. The principal difficulty still in the way of unification is said to be the very moderate fourth-class railway carriages, which exist and are much valued in Prussia, but which do not exist and are somewhat unpopular in the southern States. This difficulty seems in a fair way to be solved.

A similar movement appears also to be on foot in the two Mecklenburg Duchies, where it is reported that a petition will be presented to the local diet for uniting the management of the Mecklenburg railways with that of the Prussian system.

H. PERCIVAL DODGE, *Secretary of Embassy.*

BERLIN, GERMANY, *October 31, 1904.*

CONTINUED INDUSTRIAL DEPRESSION IN GERMANY.

(*From United States Consul Monaghan, Chemnitz, Germany.*)

While, in general, the business situation is not as unfavorable as it was last year, it is still far from real prosperity, and it is almost impossible to select any one branch of industry that has been very successful. The outlook for the coming year is anything but bright. The two leading industries of this consular district, the production of iron and hosiery, have received a considerable setback. In fact, the industries of all Saxony are suffering from the decline of business and the severe competition in all branches of the foreign trade.

Economic writers say that there are many causes which have aided in creating the present situation, but they do not agree as to the rela-

tive importance of these causes. Overproduction, excessive home competition, American competition, and the baneful cotton speculation during the last year—all these and other causes are said to have brought about the present continued heaviness in the industrial life of the Continent. That there are unmistakable signs of improvement, and that some actual material progress has been made is certainly gratifying, and, on the whole, business men are less pessimistic than last year, though one must still look hard for the light of encouragement.

Much is and has been made here of American competition. The “*amerikanische Gefahr*” (American danger) has almost become a thing to frighten children with, and the idea has been harped upon so long that there is danger of its becoming chronic. Every effort is being made by the Germans to offset the inroads of their gigantic trans-Atlantic competitor. It is not quite clear to them yet how they are going to accomplish this. One move Germany expects to make is the expansion of her own sources of raw materials, especially of cotton for the great textile factories of the Empire. For this she must look largely to the undeveloped resources of her colonies. While it will take considerable time for material results to be obtained, and a noticeable quantity of colonial cotton to be put upon the German market, a general optimistic feeling seems to prevail as to the ultimate success of the movement. Once delivered from the toils of American cotton speculators, German manufacturers think that Germany could easily compete in all markets in the line of cotton textiles, and drive her export trade even farther than at present.

J. F. MONAGHAN, *Consul*.

CHEMNITZ, GERMANY, *October 25, 1904.*

FOREIGN TRADE OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

(From *United States Consul-General Rublee, Vienna, Austria.*)

GENERAL TRADE CONDITIONS.

Trade conditions in Austria-Hungary during the year 1903 were good, according to official trade statistics. The total foreign trade was the largest in the history of the dual monarchy, the value of exports and imports being, in round numbers, \$800,000,000. The exports exceeded the imports by a considerable sum, yielding a favorable trade balance of about \$50,000,000. On the other hand, the average profits were not so large as usual. Articles of export were sold at reduced prices in many branches, and moderate profits on an increased business formed the characteristic feature of trade in the principal industries.

Austrian industry may be described as being in a period of recovery.

The import of raw materials and unfinished products shows a marked increase both in 1903 and in the first few months of 1904, while the export of raw materials and unfinished products has decreased. The export of manufactured products during the same period has increased steadily. Among the large industries that report a satisfactory state of business are the sugar, beer and alcohol, textile, iron, machine, paper, and leather and food product industries, in all of which there has been an active demand that has given evidence of improved conditions.

COMMERCIAL TREATIES.

Whether this improvement will continue depends on the adjustment of internal and external policies soon to be made. The poor crops of 1904 will exercise a contracting influence on trade, but the settlement of important economic issues that have for some time been a disturbing factor may counteract this influence. The uncertainty produced by the long delay in the conclusion of the economic alliance between Austria and Hungary has been a serious obstacle to the progress of commercial interests, and the delay in the negotiation of new commercial treaties with neighboring countries has further contributed to checking the more substantial development of foreign commerce.

The present year offers an auspicious outlook for the settlement of commercial affairs on a more definite basis, which ought to give a decided impetus to business enterprise. The first new commercial treaty, that with Italy, has been concluded, and it is stated that commercial treaties with Germany, Russia, Switzerland, and other countries will be negotiated within the next twelve months, in time to be ratified so that they can go into effect simultaneously on the 1st of January, 1906, the date on which the new treaty with Italy is to become operative. The ratification of the treaty with Italy by the Hungarian Parliament is said to be likely to be given with but little opposition, which will assure the renewal of the customs and trade alliance between Austria and Hungary, perhaps the most important issue for the commercial prosperity of the country. The new commercial treaties will be made for a period of ten or twelve years, and, by giving assurance of definite conditions of trade for a considerable time, should bring about a revival in all branches of trade and industry throughout the country.

AMERICAN TRADE WITH AUSTRIA-HUNGARY AND HOW TO INCREASE IT.

The United States comes in for a considerable share of increased trade, resulting from the greater consumption of raw material and unfinished products in Austria-Hungary, as American imports into the dual monarchy consist largely of this class of products. Owing to the increased demand for products used by the manufacturing

industries, the United States in 1903 is second in the import list of Austria-Hungary, as the following statement shows:

Value of imports into Austria-Hungary from the principal countries in 1903.

Countries.	Value.	Countries.	Value.
Germany.....	\$139,069,000	Roumania.....	\$8,769,569
United States.....	32,517,400	Brazil.....	7,527,324
Great Britain.....	31,001,619	Belgium.....	6,468,090
Italy.....	24,406,391	Egypt.....	4,737,157
Russia.....	22,798,720	Netherlands.....	3,815,584
British India.....	22,279,802	Greece.....	3,502,705
France.....	12,881,003	Dutch Indies.....	3,483,204
Servia.....	10,874,812	Argentina.....	3,033,362
Switzerland.....	10,182,473	Chile.....	2,404,894
Turkey.....	9,439,872	Africa.....	1,861,646

Though the United States appears as second in this import list, it is still far from having acquired a secure foothold in this market. Articles of American manufacture are on sale in the principal cities, but in limited quantities only. With the exception of some well-known American specialties, such as sewing machines, typewriters, tools, cash registers, etc., the market is not well supplied, nor is it well canvassed; even in most of these specialties not as much business is done as should be. The fault is that the business is not well handled. Too much is left to the foreign agent, who is not, as a rule, to be depended upon to exert himself for the introduction of American goods. The selection of agents is of the utmost importance, and it is far from easy to obtain competent ones. One American company, which has, after several years, obtained an excellent footing in this country, makes a business of training its agents and salesmen. According to its experience, only about one out of every ten agents that are thus educated proves successful. If agents are selected without personal supervision, as is generally the case when American firms write to the consulate to ask for names of suitable agents, the result is almost certain to be unsatisfactory.

A different method must be adopted for the introduction of American goods in this market in order to compete successfully with German and other foreign manufacturers, who canvass Austria-Hungary carefully and often maintain branch establishments in the principal centers of trade. This competition must be met by at least equal enterprise on the part of American exporters. Business conditions in Austria-Hungary should be studied closely, and export trade adapted to these conditions. American products have a good name in this country, but to get trade in any given article it is essential that the campaign in its behalf be thoroughly organized and that no detail be overlooked. American firms can best accomplish this by establishing branch houses. This has been demonstrated by the results achieved when such a plan has been consistently tried. Results have been dis-

couraging at first, as business is generally conducted at a loss for some time, but those firms which have given this method a thorough trial are satisfied with the showing made.

It is not to be expected that many firms can conduct foreign business on this scale. The expense would be so great as to make it impracticable. However, it would seem to be feasible to organize a general American import company, with headquarters in Vienna, that could look after the interests of a large number of American firms. If the firms wishing to do business in Austria-Hungary combined to organize such a company, the expense of each firm would be moderate, and the advantage of being represented by such means would be well worth the expenditure. It would be well to have an Austrian business man in such a company as an adviser. If two well-equipped Americans were sent to Vienna to establish an import company, and an Austrian, well posted in commercial affairs and business methods in Austria-Hungary, were associated with them, a most efficient means might be created for increasing American business throughout both countries. It would be particularly effective in reducing business difficulties now arising on account of different credit conditions, which form a great obstacle to the expansion of American business in Austria-Hungary. An American import company, or some similar means by which American exporters could secure more direct representation in the Austrian market, would seem to be one of the most likely means of acquiring more trade, and of removing one of the handicaps that Americans are subjected to in competition with German and other European firms which have branch houses or canvassers on the ground, and are able, therefore, to keep in touch with the market conditions.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

According to the official statistics of foreign trade, the value of the imports and exports of Austria-Hungary, exclusive of precious metals, was as follows during the last five years and during the first six months of 1904:

Value of imports and exports of Austria-Hungary, 1899-1904.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Total.
1899.....	\$321,774,000	\$372,318,400	\$694,092,400
1900.....	339,271,600	388,400,600	727,672,200
1901.....	330,528,400	377,091,400	707,619,800
1902.....	344,066,947	382,719,389	726,786,586
1903.....	375,362,880	425,966,183	801,319,013
1904 (first six months).....	202,081,105	204,438,439	406,519,544

In this foreign trade the part taken by the United States is given by the official statistician of the Austro-Hungarian Government in the following tables:

Exports from Austria-Hungary to the United States in 1902 and 1903.

Articles.	1902.	1903.	Articles.	1902.	1903.
Artificial flowers.....	\$702,000	\$564,600	Metal ware.....	\$56,000	\$101,000
Beans.....	899,600	203,600	Minerals.....	389,000	457,000
Beer.....	124,600	142,000	Mineral water.....	52,800	53,200
Canes.....	66,600	42,000	Musical instruments.....	110,200	191,400
Chemical compounds.....	89,200	62,400	Plants.....	92,000	214,800
Chemical products.....	112,800	152,800	Porcelain.....	790,200	937,000
Cotton goods.....	64,600	61,400	Silk goods.....	23,000	38,200
Fancy goods.....	154,400	279,800	Skins.....	388,800	473,200
Fats.....	139,800	61,400	Sugar.....	990,000	859,400
Furniture (bent wood)....	84,200	136,400	Wooden ware.....	85,800	141,600
Glassware.....	536,600	678,200	Wool (raw and cleaned)...	184,200	154,800
Gloves.....	21,200	128,600	Woolen woven goods.....	61,000	63,600
Gum arabic, etc.....	70,200	41,600	Other articles.....	937,000	1,185,000
Hops.....	86,000	171,000			
Insect powder.....	103,800	59,800			
Linen goods.....	876,800	1,273,200	Total.....	7,968,200	9,154,600

Imports into Austria-Hungary from the United States in 1902 and 1903.

Articles.	1902.	1903.	Articles.	1902.	1903.
Copper.....	\$2,643,400	\$2,774,000	Machinery and apparatus	\$414,600	\$465,400
Copper vitriol.....	139,800	169,400	Minerals.....	323,600	785,000
Cotton (raw).....	17,544,800	20,748,600	Mineral oils (refined)....	327,600	440,800
Cotton waste.....	163,200	223,400	Pitch and resin.....	394,400	596,000
Cotton-seed oil.....	1,198,200	1,417,000	Timber.....	80,000	137,200
Fats.....	454,600	976,800	Tobacco.....	849,000	1,067,000
Grain.....	303,600	95,600	Turpentine and turpen- tine oil.....	156,200	139,200
Horses.....	71,200	62,400	Wooden nails for shoe- makers.....	77,200	90,800
Instruments.....	327,800	446,000	Other articles.....	1,231,200	1,607,600
Iron (unwrought cast- iron).....	6,400	10,800			
Lead and alloys.....	190,800	43,000	Total.....	27,161,200	32,517,400
Leather.....	263,600	232,400			

W. A. RUBLEE, *Consul-General.*VIENNA, AUSTRIA, *October 18, 1904.**Trade of the United States with Austria-Hungary, 1880 to 1904.^a*

Year ending June 30—	Exports to Austria-Hungary.			Imports from Aus- tria- Hungary.
	Domestic.	Foreign.	Total.	
1880.....	\$2,304,601	\$2,228	\$2,306,829	\$ (?)
1881.....	2,255,140	272	2,255,412	1,415,611
1882.....	2,286,162	9,540	2,295,702	2,444,812
1883.....	1,715,382	61,522	1,779,904	2,984,923
1884.....	2,483,025	6,857	2,489,882	7,744,965
1885.....	2,609,216	106,321	2,714,537	5,745,580
1886.....	1,960,267	44,868	1,995,135	6,603,058
1887.....	679,981	3,000	682,981	8,522,088
1888.....	331,662	1,164	332,826	8,683,528
1889.....	720,825	5,227	726,052	7,642,297
1890.....	945,703	2,650	948,358	9,331,378
1891.....	1,215,540	95,343	1,311,083	11,595,310
1892.....	1,485,233	42,747	1,527,980	7,718,565
1893.....	542,073	28,964	571,037	10,054,501
1894.....	526,721	788	527,509	6,896,341
1895.....	2,069,742	66,030	2,125,772	6,510,319
1896.....	2,370,901	68,750	2,439,651	7,644,154
1897.....	3,759,700	263,311	4,023,011	8,158,328
1898.....	5,469,853	228,069	5,697,912	4,716,510
1899.....	7,148,419	230,516	7,378,935	6,561,256
1900.....	6,826,972	219,847	7,046,819	9,079,667
1901.....	6,963,299	259,351	7,222,650	10,067,970
1902.....	5,913,462	253,665	6,167,127	10,150,601
1903.....	6,973,513	183,175	7,156,688	10,569,929
1904.....	8,137,670	87,612	8,225,282	10,372,689

^a From data of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

SALVAGE SERVICE IN EUROPE.

(From United States Consul-General Pitcairn, Hamburg, Germany.)

The latest issue—October, 1904—of the pilot charts of the North Atlantic Ocean, prepared by the German hydrographic office, contains very interesting details regarding the salvage service in Europe. The information is said to have been compiled by the Hamburg Underwriters' Union.

According to said chart, there are in Europe at present three large wrecking companies, the Nordische Bergungsverein, the Bergnings ok Dykeri Aktiebolaget Neptun, and the Em. Z. Svitzer's Bjergnings Enterprise.

Em. Z. Svitzer's Bjergnings Enterprise, of Copenhagen, founded in 1835, is the oldest of the three companies. This firm possesses ten steamers, employed exclusively for salvage purposes. One is stationed in the Mediterranean, the other nine along the Danish coast—at Copenhagen, Korsør, Frederikshavn, etc. The company's telegraphic address is "Svitzersalvage," Copenhagen.

The Bergnings ok Dykeri Aktiebolaget Neptun, of Stockholm, founded in 1856, possesses eleven salvage steamers, of which two are stationed in the Mediterranean, and nine in Swedish ports, among them Stockholm, Trelleborg, Oscarshamn, and Visby. The company's telegraphic address is "Liljewalch," Stockholm.

The Nordische Bergungsverein, of Hamburg, founded in 1886, has stationed outside of the mouth of the Elbe—at Borkum, Heligoland or Cuxhaven—five salvage steamers, and on the lower Elbe four raising steamers and steam lighters, and in the Mediterranean and the Black seas four salvage steamers. Three steamers of the other two companies on the Mediterranean service are at its disposal—one of the "Svitzer" and two of the "Neptun" vessels. The telegraphic address of the Nordische Bergungsverein is "Salvage," Hamburg, and the stations in the Mediterranean are:

Mediterranean stations and agents of the Nordische Bergungsverein, of Hamburg.

Ports.	Agents.	Telegraphic address.
Gibraltar	{Smith, Imossi & Co.....	"Java."
	{Thos. Mosley & Co.....	"Mosley."
Malta	{O. F. Gollicher & Co.....	"Gollicher."
	{Thos. Smith & Co.....	"Thomas Smith."
Marseille	{William Carr.....	"Carr."
Messina	{Destefano & Bensala.....	"Benena."
Piræus	{Theocharis & Decavalla.....	"Decavalla."
Constantinople	{Theo. Reppen.....	"Reppen."
Kustendji	{.....	
Sulina	{Watson & Youell	"Youell."
Galatz	{.....	
Odessa	{R. Muntz	"Muntz."

The salvage steamers of these three companies are equipped with wrecking material, machinery, and appliances fully adequate to all modern accomplishments. They have on board well-trained crews and engineering staffs, and are constantly ready to render assistance. In many instances their services are performed on a contingent basis—no success, no payment. Vessels of the Imperial German navy have the first right to the assistance of the Nordische Bergungsverein.

There are several other salvage companies, not having at their disposal such large wrecking material as those named, which occasionally render valuable assistance and accomplish small salvages. Among these may be mentioned the Amsterdam Tug and Salvage Company, of Amsterdam (telegraphic address, "Zurmuhlen," Amsterdam). This company has agencies at Nieuwediep, Ymuiden, and Terschelling, and possesses seven tugboats, of which four are equipped with centrifugal pumps, lighters, salvage material, etc. One salvage company is also at Maassluis.

In England there are only three completely equipped salvage steamers, and these belong to the Liverpool Salvage Association. Smaller English wrecking companies, such as the East Coast Salvage Company, do not possess the material required for large salvage work. The removal of wrecks and obstacles of navigation on the Thames is performed by the Thames Conservancy, a Government institution, the object of which is to keep open the river channel.

In France there exists one steamer equipped with salvage material at Marseille; another steamer for smaller salvages is stationed at Algiers.

In Italy there are two salvage companies, each of which possesses one steamer, with pumps and wrecking implements—the Società Anonima per Ricuperi Sottomarini, and the Anchora Marine Salvage Company (Limited), both at Genoa. The telegraphic address of the latter is "Anchora."

In Russia there are small salvage companies at Reval and Helsingfors, the sphere of action of which is limited to the neighboring coast districts.

HUGH PITCARN, *Consul-General.*

HAMBURG, GERMANY, *October 6, 1904.*

TRADE OF AMOY, CHINA.

(From United States Consul Fessler, Amoy, China.)

IMPORTS IN 1903.

The value of foreign goods imported into Amoy in 1903 amounted to 8,819,902 haikwan taels (\$5,688,837), a decrease of 1,250,000 haikwan taels (\$806,250) from 1902.

The importation of American flour amounted to 115,765 piculs (15,435,300 pounds), a decrease of 39,939 piculs (5,325,200 pounds) from the previous year. This was owing to the large rice crop in this district.

The importation of kerosene oil shows an increase of about 200,000 gallons over that of the previous year, chiefly in the Sumatra product. The Standard Oil Company has just established an office in Amoy, and intends in the near future to erect a tank system, which will undoubtedly increase to a large extent the consumption of American oil.

Imports of kerosene into Amoy in 1902 and 1903.

Country of origin.	1902.	1903.
	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Gallons.</i>
America.....cases.....	566,240	463,205
Borneo.....bulk.....	742,270	583,215
Sumatra.....do.....	1,418,660	1,869,190
Total.....	2,727,170	2,915,610

EXPORTS IN 1903.

The export of Formosa oolong tea to the United States in 1903 amounted to \$2,047,669.85, a decrease of nearly \$300,000 from 1902. The decrease is due to direct shipments from Formosa to New York.

The exports to the Philippine Islands amounted to \$96,232.53, against \$116,515.50 in the previous year.

Exports from Amoy to the Philippine Islands in 1903.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Cloth shoes.....	\$1,920.40	Medicines.....	\$2,254.79
Chinese ware.....	5,435.49	Miscellaneous.....	21,302.67
Fish nets.....	7,002.50	Paper No. 1.....	7,361.66
Fruits, fresh.....	860.00	Paper No. 2.....	19,761.78
Fruits, dried.....	564.50	Dried garlic.....	3,549.17
Granite.....	207.27	Tea.....	7,692.87
Grass cloth.....	10,991.40	Wooden ware.....	3,245.98
Hemp bags.....	1,025.50		
Iron ware.....	3,066.55	Total.....	96,232.53

The exports from Amoy to the United States in 1903 consisted of personal effects, \$1,034; lily bulbs, \$12,389; tea labels, \$248, and tea (Formosa oolong), \$2,047,670, total, \$2,061,341.

SHIPPING AND EMIGRATION.

Vessels cleared for the United States in 1903.

Destination.	Number.	Net tonnage.
San Francisco.....	10	34,244
New York.....	24	64,042
Portland.....	1	3,152
Tacoma.....	2	3,842
Philippine ports.....	31	33,266
Total.....	68	138,546

The number of native passengers embarked from Amoy during the year for Singapore was 69,000; for Manila, 5,100; for Saigon, 2,300, and for Hongkong, 5,600.

JOHN H. FESLER, *Consul*.

AMOY, CHINA, *September 22, 1904.*

SPANISH COAL AND IRON ORE.

(*From United States Consul Bartleman, Seville, Spain.*)

COAL.

The general league representing the bituminous coal interests of Spain has published a statement embodying the report presented to the commission appointed to study the revision of the customs tariff, from which the following statistics are extracted.

England has for many years enjoyed the supremacy in this product, exporting millions of tons (63,000,000 tons in 1903) to all countries on the globe. She is now beginning to consider seriously the competition into which Germany and the United States are entering with her, these countries having in the last few years made gigantic efforts and increased their output a hundredfold.

The coal-bearing territory in Spain is fully as extensive as, if not more extensive than, that of England, and the consumption of bituminous coal in the former country has increased considerably (from 3,284,892 tons in 1893 to 5,230,204 tons in 1903); yet the production of coal in Spain in 1903 did not exceed 2,974,239 tons, which means that 2,255,765 tons had to be imported that year instead of being produced in Spain, which would have greatly benefited the country.

This product being very abundant in Spain, and constituting a necessary article of increasing consumption, since it is the very basis of every industry, the present situation seems almost to acknowledge a deplorable organization of Spanish industry, placing the country at the mercy of the foreigner, on the fluctuation of whose market it depends. The report of the league demonstrates that the Spanish coasts, where the consumption of coal is greatest, are at the mercy of importers, as Spanish bituminous coal is unloaded solely on interior markets, the transportation charges on coal from German or English mines to coast ports being lower than those from the mines of Asturia and León.

IRON ORE.

The report dwells also on other sides of the question, seeking to illustrate Spain's industrial backwardness, through lack of serious study of this problem. The production of iron ore, for instance, is of great importance in Spain, having reached 8,478,000 tons in 1903.

Of this amount 7,692,214 were exported, leaving 830,000 tons only for Spain's own use.

England and Germany use Spanish iron ore, transforming it into manufactures of divers classes, and return it to Spain at a premium amounting to millions of pesetas.

R. M. BARTLEMAN, *Consul.*

SEVILLE, SPAIN, *October 14, 1904.*

TRADE OF FUCHAU, CHINA.

(From United States Consul Gracey, Fuchau, China.)

The value of the general merchandise imported at Fuchau in 1903 was 7,023,000 taels (\$1,564,950), a large increase over the value of the imports in 1902. The value of the foreign cotton goods, including yarns, received here increased 1,456,714 taels (\$946,864), and was equal to the value of the imports in 1899, the premier year. The import of yarns is the largest ever known. Japanese yarns have fallen off, and the chief increase has been in the India product. Among woolen goods, blankets show a large gain.

The import of kerosene shows that the Sumatra product has taken the place of both American and Russian oil in the native market, the principle that seems to prevail being "not the best, but the cheapest." The imports from Sumatra amounted to 2,661,515 gallons, valued at \$310,013, against 700 gallons of American oil and no Russian. Imports of matches from Japan increased from 216,593 gross to 226,472 gross, and imports of sugar, white and refined, increased.

Tea shipments during 1903 were good both in quantity and quality. The rejection of much poor tea shipped to the United States the previous year had a good effect. Camphor shipments amounted to 1,144 piculs (152,495 pounds), valued at 62,986 taels (\$40,941). With the removal of a virtual Japanese monopoly of this trade in the interior, which has been brought about by the protests of the foreign consuls, led by the British consul, whose people are especially concerned in the traffic, it is believed there will be a great increase in the collection and export of this valuable drug. The camphor tree grows extensively in the upper part of Fukien province, and with improved methods of preparation of the crude and distilled article the supply can be greatly increased and the quality much improved.

I have previously made special reports on the mining interests of this province (Fukien), especially coal and gold, both of which are known to exist, within easy reach, offering most attractive prizes for the prospector and practical engineer. With any encouragement on the part of the provincial authorities, immense supplies of both these articles could be gotten out, but the attitude of the higher officials is

one of obstruction, applying almost equally to native and foreign promoters. The treaty provisions relating to mining by foreigners are nullified by unreasonable objections, and so it occurs that, while the people and the officials all complain of poverty, these well-known rich fields of coal and gold, easily available, lie unworked and profitless. This is due chiefly to ignorance of mining methods, fear of the foreign promoter, and the conservative spirit which is such an incubus on all enterprise in China.

SAMUEL L. GRACEY, *Consul.*

FUCHAU, CHINA, *September 20, 1904.*

NEW BOILER-SCALE DESTROYER.

(*From United States Consul Mahin, Nottingham, England.*)

The attention of interested persons in this locality is being directed to a new patent water softener, exploited by the Hull Boiler-Fluid Company, of Cumberland street, Hull. It is described as a fluid boiler composition which will "soften" any kind of hard water and greatly prolong the life of steam boilers. It prevents scaling, and in the case of boilers that have already become foul it will gradually disintegrate and remove old scale and prevent priming. Samples of old scale are exhibited which the fluid is credited with having broken up. In some cases, it is said, the scale was a hard, cement-like formation nearly an inch thick. After a use of the scale destroyer for about three months it is claimed the deposit in the boilers was in the form of a fine, smooth powder or dust, which could be washed away by a hose pipe and water, instead of an incrustation that had to be laboriously chipped off with hammer and chisel.

The composition is described as of a purely vegetable nature, no chemicals being used in any way in its manufacture, and there is said to be nothing in it to injure the plates or fittings of the boilers, whether of iron, copper, brass, or other metal. In order to thoroughly test its behavior in this respect, a large steam boiler was filled with the crude undiluted fluid and run at 60 pounds pressure for three weeks. It was then examined by a boiler inspector and an insurance company's man and reported to be in perfect condition. It is also claimed that where this softener is employed the steam may be used for the most delicate operations of any manufactory without the slightest ill effect, and that a large number of representative firms have tried it under actual working conditions, and have written, speaking very highly of its effect. It is now under trial at sea for use in marine boilers with salt water.

FRANK W. MAHIN, *Consul.*

NOTTINGHAM, ENGLAND, *November 7, 1904.*

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

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PRODUCTION AND TRADE OF YUKON TERRITORY.

(From United States Consul Bergholz, Dawson, Canada.)

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The total trade of the Yukon Territory for the calendar year 1903, as shown by the customs returns at the ports of Dawson and White Horse, amounted to \$12,509,894, the imports being valued at \$1,698,883, and the exports at \$10,811,211. Of the exports, \$10,324,720 represent gold dust, and but \$486,491 merchandise. Exports to the value of \$10,603,551 were invoiced through this consulate for the United States and Alaska, made up as follows: American goods, \$184,684; American gold dust, \$120,656; total American exports, \$305,340; Canadian goods, \$94,147; Canadian gold dust, \$10,204,064; total Canadian exports, \$10,298,211. With the exception of the gold dust, which went to the assay offices at Seattle and San Francisco, all the American and Canadian goods were shipped down the river to Eagle, Fairbanks, and other towns in Alaska on the Yukon River.

Of the imports, mostly general merchandise, groceries, and machinery, the greater part was from the United States and will find its way into Alaska, to the growing camps in the Tanana district.

A detailed statement of the imports and exports would convey no useful information to the dealers and manufacturers in the United States, nor aid them in extending trade with this section of Canada, as all purchases are made by importers directly or through the many excellent commercial houses at Dawson, which are mostly American, and in some cases have large capital invested, amounting in one instance to \$7,000,000.

MINING.

The Yukon Territory, which prior to 1898 formed a part of the Northwest Territory, has an area of 196,976 square miles, 196,327 being land and 649 water; the population is estimated at 12,000, of whom 7,200 are Americans. It is purely a mineral country, and has produced since 1885, when the output of gold was first recorded, to the end of 1903, \$97,063,500 in gold. During the same period the gold mined in the Saskatchewan district was valued at \$292,946; in the Province of Ontario, \$2,086,393; in the Province of Quebec, \$103,940; in the Province of British Columbia, \$40,545,398, and in Nova Scotia, \$9,318,984; a total of \$52,347,661. The pro-

duction of Yukon Territory thus exceeded that of the rest of Canada by \$44,715,839. In the most prosperous years for the Yukon, those from 1898 to the present, the production of gold has been as follows: 1898, \$10,000,000; 1899, \$16,000,000; 1900, \$22,275,000; 1901, \$18,000,000; 1902, \$14,500,000; 1903, \$12,250,000; a total in six years of \$93,025,000. It is interesting to note that \$65,046,178 of this was sent to the assay offices at Seattle and San Francisco.

TRANSPORTATION AND POSTAL FACILITIES.

Dawson, the capital of the Yukon Territory and the residential and commercial center of what is commonly known as the Klondike, has a population of 3,500 persons of various nationalities, the Americans, with 2,450, greatly predominating and forming 70 per cent of the total.

The city is easily reached during the season of navigation (from about May 15 to October 10) in six to eight days from Seattle, Wash., or Vancouver, British Columbia, by three lines of steamers to Skagway, Alaska (three to four days), where connection is made by rail to White Horse (one day), the head of navigation on the Yukon River. From White Horse the White Pass Line runs comfortable boats to Dawson in from three to four days. This company operates, between White Horse and Dawson, 12 vessels and 5 barges with a capacity of 3,500 tons. During the season of 1904 it handled 22,447 tons and carried 4,932 passengers. Passenger rates from Seattle to Dawson are \$80 first class and \$65 second class. Freight rates from Seattle to Dawson by the carload are \$3 to \$4.25 per 100 pounds. Commodity rates from the Pacific coast points during the midsummer are \$2.37 per 100 pounds. From Dawson the rates to Eagle, Chena or Fairbanks, and Fort Gibbon, Alaska, are, per ton, \$10, \$70, and \$40, respectively. The White Pass Rail Division between Skagway and White Horse, 111 miles, operates daily passenger and freight service, with a capacity of at least 5,000 tons a day. This company is under the Canadian flag, but American capital is largely invested in it.

There is a second though much longer route, taking twenty-three days, from Seattle to Dawson by way of St. Michael, Alaska. Two steamboat lines, both American, run on the lower Yukon River between St. Michael and Dawson—the Northern Commercial Company and the North American Transportation and Trading Company. The former operates 22 steamers and barges, with a total net tonnage of 7,851 tons, and the latter 9 steamers and barges, with a total gross tonnage of 6,083 tons. The passenger rate by these two lines is \$125 from Seattle to Dawson, and the average rate per ton on freight is \$60. Besides the boats of the above companies, there are 11 independent steamers, American and Canadian, plying between White Horse and Dawson and points in Alaska on the Yukon River. Some of these have comfortable accommodations for passengers.

Postal rates from the Yukon Territory are the same as from other points in the Dominion of Canada. From October to May, however, the closed season of navigation, only first-class matter and single copies of newspapers are brought (by stage) by the postal authorities to Dawson. Other mail matter will, if requested, be forwarded by express on the stage, the charge to be paid by the consignee.

CUSTOMS REGULATIONS.

Attention is particularly called to certain new features in the customs regulations and laws of Canada.^a I can not too strongly urge upon American manufacturers and exporters a careful and strict observance of these regulations. A slight infringement may result in serious delay, which may cause a loss to the importer. Because of the shortness of the season of navigation (from May 15 to October 10) and the irregular departure of steamers, the conditions of transportation here are entirely different from those in the southern and eastern provinces of the Dominion.

LEO BERGHOLZ, *Consul.*

DAWSON, CANADA, *October 25, 1904.*

CANALS IN CHINA.

(From United States Consul Anderson, Hangchau, China.)

There are several features of the canal system of China, especially of the Imperial or Grand Canal, which can be studied with profit by the people of the United States. One of these is the use of the canal for the production of food in addition to its uses as a means of transportation. Allied to this is the use of the muck which gathers at the bottom of the waterway for fertilization. Another is the use of every particle of plant life growing in and around the canal for various purposes.

The Chinese secure a vast quantity of food of one sort or another from their canals. To appreciate the exact situation with respect to the waterways, it must be realized that the canals of China cover the plain country with a network of water. Leading from the Grand Canal in each direction are smaller canals, and from these lead still smaller canals, until there is hardly a single tract of 40 acres which is not reached by some sort of a ditch, generally capable of carrying good-sized boats. The first reason for this great network is the needs of rice cultivation. During practically all of the growing season for rice the fields are flooded. Wherever a natural waterway can be made to irrigate the rice fields it is used, but, of course, from these to the canals or larger rivers there must be waterways. Where natural

^a See Daily Consular Reports, No. 2069, September 30, 1904, and No. 2086, October 20, 1904.

streams can not thus be adapted the Chinese lead water in canals or ditches to the edge of their fields and raise it to the fields of rice by the foot power carriers which have been described so often by tourist writers. However the water is supplied to the rice, it is evident that there must be a waterway leading to the field and back to a principal stream, which is generally a branch canal. These waterways naturally take up a considerable portion of the land, and the Chinese make as profitable use of them as of the land itself.

The first use of the waterways is for fishing. The quantity of fish taken from the canals of China annually is immense. The Chinese have no artificial fish hatcheries, but the supply of fish is maintained at a high point by the fact that the flooded rice fields act as hatcheries and as hiding places for the young fish until they are large enough to look out for themselves. In the United States this fish propagation annex to the canals is probably neither possible nor needful in view of the work done by the State and national bureaus; but in China it is nothing less than providential.

Along the canals in China at any time may be found boatmen gathering muck from the bottom of the canal. This muck is taken in much the same manner that oysters are taken by hand on the Atlantic coast. In place of tongs are large bag-like devices on crossed bamboo poles which take in a large quantity of the ooze at once. This is emptied into the boat, and the process is repeated until the boatman has a load, when he will proceed to some neighboring farm and empty the muck, either directly on his fields—especially around the mulberry trees, which are raised for the silkworms—or in a pool, where it is taken later to the fields. From this muck the Chinese farmer will generally secure enough shellfish to pay him for his work, and the fertilizer is clear gain. The fertilizer thus secured is valuable. It is rich in nitrogen and potash and has abundant humus elements. This dredging of the canals for fertilizers is the only way by which the Chinese have kept their canals in reasonably good condition for centuries. The fertilizer has paid for itself both ways. Recently there were complaints filed at Peking that the ashes from the steam launches plying on the canals were injuring the muck for fertilizing purposes, and the problem has been considered a serious one by the Chinese Government.

In addition to securing fertilizers from the canals, and thus keeping the canals in condition, the farmers help keep them purified by gathering all floating weeds, grass, and other vegetable debris that they can find upon them. Boatmen will secure great loads of water plants and grass by skimming the surface of the canal. The reeds growing along the canals are used for weaving baskets of several grades, and for fuel. In short, no plant life about the canal goes to waste.

Where there are so many canals there is more or less swamp ground. In China this is utilized for the raising of lotus roots, from which

commercial arrowroot is largely obtained. There is no reason why much of the waste swamp land in the southern portion of the United States should not be used for a similar purpose, and the commercial returns from a venture of this sort in that part of the country ought to be satisfactory. Where the canals of China widen, by reason of natural waterways or for other reasons, the expanse of water not needed for actual navigation is made use of in the raising of water nuts of several varieties, especially what are known as water chestnuts. These nuts are raised in immense quantities. They are, strictly speaking, bulbs rather than nuts. They are rich in arrowroot and are prolific, an acre of shallow water producing far more than an acre of well cultivated soil planted in ordinary grain or similar crops. These nuts, also, could be produced to advantage in the United States where there is land inundated for the growing season to a depth which will give ordinary water plants a chance to thrive and which is not capable of being drained for the time being. The nuts or bulbs are toothsome when roasted, and are wholesome, but probably would be more valuable in the United States for the manufactured products which can be secured from them.

There are duck farms all along the canals in China. These are profitable. Chinese canals, as a rule, considering the population upon them and their varied uses, are cleaner than canals in the United States. There are few if any factories to contaminate them. The Chinese use of certain sewage for fertilization also prevents contamination to a great extent. The canal water is used for laundry, bath, and culinary purposes indiscriminately. A canal in the United States could never be what it is in China, but the Chinese have a number of clever devices and ideas in connection with canals which can be adopted in the United States with profit.

The Grand Canal system in China has existed in almost its present shape since about the time Columbus discovered America. The Grand Canal itself, extending from Hangchau to Peking, is about a thousand miles long. Much of it is banked with stone, and all of it is in such condition that with the expenditure of a little money, the system could be put upon a modern and effective basis. As it is, the canal handles practically all the internal trade of China, and this trade is far greater than its foreign trade. The coming of railroads will affect the canals somewhat, but not so much as may be imagined, for the railroads will very largely build up a trade of their own. A little money will make China's canal system in the future what it has been in the past, the greatest on earth.

GEORGE E. ANDERSON, *Consul*.

HANGCHAU, CHINA, *October 4, 1904.*

TRADE CONDITIONS IN CHINA.

(From United States Consul Gracey, Fuchau, China.)

Trade in southern China does not show the falling off, in recent years, that it does in the northern provinces, owing to good crops and freedom, to a great extent, from the disturbing influences which have prevailed since 1899—the Boxer troubles of 1900, the siege of Tientsin and Peking, and the disastrous floods of 1901—since which time neither money nor credit has been at the command of native traders in the north. These disquieting conditions have been intensified by the prospect of war between Japan and Russia, involving Manchuria. Indemnity taxes, far beyond the actual need for payment of the indemnity, have doubtless put the people under an unnecessary and severe handicap, and curtailed their ability and disposition to indulge in foreign products, and have also increased the cost of credit to the trade generally.

Tea has been favored by large reductions of taxation on export, and the trade has not fallen off to the extent it would certainly have done under old export-tax rates. This has largely benefited the more southern provinces, while the unusual rice harvests of the last two years have greatly aided the farmer class in this province (Fukien) and Kwantung.

The general customs revenue shows an increase of 500,000 taels (\$325,000) in 1903, which is to be credited very largely to the southern provinces and the Yangtze Valley. Shanghai, the importing center for north and central China, shows a falling off of 1,194,279 taels (\$776,281) in revenue receipts. The increased revenue in all China on opium amounted to 745,807 taels (\$484,900). Transit dues show an increase of 305,536 taels (\$198,900), and of this increase two-thirds was on foreign goods inward and one-third on native goods outward.

The value of the foreign trade of China in 1903 exceeds that of any previous year, being 541,091,600 taels (\$357,709,800), which is about double that of ten years ago, and 2 per cent higher than that of 1902.

China paid for opium last year an average price of 750 taels (\$487) per picul (133½ pounds), and imported a much larger quantity than in 1902, when the average price was 700 taels (\$455) per picul. The total opium import in 1903 was 58,478 piculs (7,795,117 pounds) valued at 43,830,892 taels (\$28,490,080).

SAMUEL L. GRACEY, *Consul*.

FUCHAU, CHINA, *September 20, 1904.*

CONGESTION IN THE GERMAN RUBBER INDUSTRY.

(From United States Consul-General Mason, Berlin, Germany.)

It appears from various indications that the rubber-manufacturing industry in Germany is in a state of depression out of all proportion to the general depression of manufacturing industries in this country. Not that there has been any decline in the demand for rubber goods of every conceivable kind; on the contrary, there is a steady increase in the consumption of such articles, which fully keeps pace with the constantly lengthening list of purposes to which the protean forms of caoutchouc manufactures are applied.

The critical situation here is due mainly to two causes, (1) the greatly increased cost of crude rubber, which has created a fatal disproportion between the prices of raw material and of the finished product, and (2) overproduction, due to the excessive and injudicious increase in the number and capacity of rubber factories since 1899. To these may be added a third, namely, that during the past two or three years several large electrical manufacturing companies which were previously large consumers of rubber fixtures of various kinds have, in the interest of economy, opened special departments and now manufacture their own supplies of such materials.

In respect to the increased cost of crude rubber, the facts are the same here as elsewhere. The standard grade of Para, which cost in 1902 about 57 cents per pound, is now quoted at about \$1.19, so that within two years the cost of raw material of the best grade has more than doubled. It is asserted here that the enhanced cost has not been due to a diminishing supply, for on the contrary, thanks to more intelligent methods of tapping and gathering the gum, as well as to improved means of transportation from remote Brazilian forests and the planting of rubber trees in various countries, the production of crude gum is now slowly increasing. The German rubber manufacturers charge that the high cost of crude caoutchouc is due almost wholly to manipulation, especially in England, where a few powerful firms are able to control the supply and fix prices for the whole of Europe.

It is true that the enormously increased use of pneumatic tires for motor vehicles, and of solid-rubber tires for carriages, cabs, etc., has made a heavy draft on the crude-rubber supply; but, on the other hand, there is now but a limited though steady demand for bicycle tires, which five or six years ago were made by hundreds of thousands, so that the deficit in that specialty, in some measure at least, balances the increased consumption of rubber for motor vehicles.

The fatal fact which underlies more or less the whole situation in Germany is that, on account of the excessive number of factories and

consequent overproduction, it is impossible for manufacturers to force up the selling prices of their goods in keeping with the doubled cost of raw material. It is usual for manufacturers under such circumstances to form a trust or selling syndicate, to control the output and fix prices and conditions for the sale of finished products. Accordingly a few months ago an effort was made to bring the fifty-five German rubber goods manufactories together in a cartel similar to those which so efficiently control other industries, but such were the differences of opinion and the clashing of interests that the attempt failed. Of the whole number of manufacturers, all of whom it may be assumed understood fully the precarious condition of their industry, only twelve responded to the call. Many of the others make specialties of which they enjoy a certain monopoly, and can therefore maintain something like remunerative prices, and these refused to merge their interests in the cartel. In Austria, on the other hand, where only eight rubber factories exist, a syndicate was readily formed which advanced prices to fit the increased cost of materials, and thereby gave the independent German manufacturers a chance, which they promptly improved, to undersell the Austrian makers in their own market.

The teachings of the situation, as interpreted by the press, are that German manufacturers should strive to emancipate themselves from the English caoutchouc market by establishing direct relations with original sources of supply, and should use all their influence to encourage and promote rubber cultivation in Africa and other countries, where the trees, although not indigenous, are found to thrive and produce satisfactorily under skillful management. This, of course, is at best a remote and uncertain measure of relief, but until the cost of raw caoutchouc can be reduced to something near the rates of two or three years ago, it is difficult to see how the German rubber industry is going to recover its normal prosperity.

FRANK H. MASON, *Consul-General*.

BERLIN, GERMANY, *October 27, 1904.*

MACHINE AND TOOL INDUSTRIES OF CHEMNITZ.

(*From United States Consul Monaghan, Chemnitz, Germany.*)

Every effort is being made by Germany to negotiate favorable commercial treaties, and she has certainly been very successful thus far, for the lately concluded Russian treaty is looked upon as a distinct victory for Germany. It is easy to understand what all these treaties mean to industrial Saxony. One often wonders how this city (Chemnitz), with its large machine-building works, has been so successful in competing upon the markets of the world, when a large proportion of the raw materials used comes from foreign countries, and a number of

the large machine plants are located some miles from the railroads, so that everything must be hauled to and from the factories by means of trucks. The cheapness of labor seems a blessing here.

Though a general improvement in local industrial conditions was manifest in the past year, the machine-building trade did not benefit particularly by the change. The annual reports submitted by the leading factories of Chemnitz to the local chamber of commerce show that almost invariably competition was very keen, orders hardly above the average, and prices so low as to leave but a small profit. In certain lines conditions were more favorable, especially in the spinning and thread machine building branch, which was well supplied with orders, and, toward the close of the year, was even crowded with work.

MACHINE TOOLS.

During the last six months of the year 1903 the machine-tool industry continued to suffer from overproduction, a special effort having been made at this time to get rid of all accumulated stocks. The first six months of 1904 showed some improvement, through the increase of foreign orders, but, on the whole, the situation is not satisfactory. Orders are still so slow in coming that most machine-tool manufacturers have on their pay rolls but a limited number of hands. Complaints are also made in this industry that coal prices are held too high, and that large consumers are forced to import Bohemian coal in large quantities. The raw-iron syndicate is also looked upon with suspicion, and has lost much credit through its recent manipulation of prices.

Manufacturers of machine tools used directly in the building of machinery, and those used in keeping other machine tools in condition, have reported slow but steady improvement in their trade, due largely to a considerable increase in foreign orders. Inland orders are few and far between.

KNITTING MACHINES AND KNITTING-MACHINE NEEDLES.

The situation in the knitting, machine building trade was reported as satisfactory during the last year. The practice of sending out traveling agents in this branch in place of sale by correspondence has been growing rapidly. Since the prices of last year had to be maintained, or even reduced, most of the factories report smaller profits on a larger bulk of business, because of the expense of dispatching agents. The wage conditions remained unaltered in this industry.

The knitting-machine needle manufacturing industry shared in the improvement of the knitting machine building trade, though a higher grade of needle was demanded at the old price, a better needle being necessitated to meet the requirements of the higher-speed machines which were built. The export of knitting-machine needles is steadily

growing, and at present goes to practically every nation in which the hosiery manufacturing industry has obtained a foothold. The exports of knitting-machine needles from the consular district of Chemnitz to the United States alone, in the three months ended June 30, 1904, were valued at \$10,000, and most of these needles were shipped by a single firm. The export to other leading countries is correspondingly large.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

The agricultural implement manufacturing trade developed satisfactorily during the last year. The prospect of good harvests induced buyers to invest heavily in farming implements, and, since the crops did not disappoint, this industry enjoyed a favorable year. No important change in the price of raw materials occurred. The export trade showed no new features, except that the heavy duties levied by Austria on foreign agricultural implements made export to that country impossible.

BICYCLE MANUFACTURES.

The bicycle manufacturing industry has shown a slight improvement in demand, though the prices were less satisfactory than in the preceding year. Complaint is made that the export trade is annually growing more difficult and less remunerative, because of the constant increase of protective duties.

The bicycle and automobile lantern manufacturers, and other manufacturers of parts of bicycles and automobiles, complain bitterly of American competition. The low German tariff, it is claimed by German manufacturers, enables foreign competitors to "dump" their surplus in this line upon the German market, and thus get rid of it even though they sell at a slight profit or even at a loss. This, the Germans claim, is especially the practice of manufacturers in the United States, who annually export large quantities of these goods to Germany.

ELECTRICAL MACHINES.

The first half of the year ended June 30, 1904, left the electrical machine manufacturing industry but moderately employed, but during the last six months conditions have improved steadily, so that at the present time this industry is fully employed. The Saxon electrical industry is especially highly developed, and Saxon motors, generators, and transmuters have acquired an excellent reputation for durability and cheapness. The Saxon government placed a number of heavy orders for electrical machinery that contributed much toward the improvement of conditions. Foreign markets also expanded satisfactorily. The heaviest foreign buyers were Holland, Belgium, Spain, South Africa, Russia, Austria-Hungary, and the Balkan States.

Though prices were kept down by severe competition, the demand continued good to the close of the year. Wage conditions are reported good in this branch.

SCIENTIFIC INSTRUMENTS.

Good reports come from manufacturers of scientific instruments. Inland sales were not satisfactory, as a result of the meager appropriations allowed by the various State governments of the Empire for the purchase of such equipments. Only an extremely modest sum was set aside for improvements in this line in most of the educational institutions. However, this was more than compensated for by the export trade. Since scientific instruments are admitted free of duty into practically all foreign countries, Germany enjoys a large export trade, and reaps rich harvests from its well-established reputation as a manufacturer of the finest and most delicate scientific instruments.

The total exports of scientific instruments to the United States from the consular district of Chemnitz during the years ended June 30, 1903 and 1904, amounted to \$4,961 and \$11,276, respectively.

J. F. MONAGHAN, *Consul*.

CHEMNITZ, GERMANY, *October 25, 1904.*

ALCOHOL CARBURETORS AND MOTORS IN FRANCE.

(From United States Consul-General Skinner, Marseille, France.)

In spite of official encouragement, it may be said that alcohol motors and carburetors remain to-day incompletely developed. Many manufacturers have their particular form of carburetor, but I am informed that one device is in greatest demand; yet even of this type, out of 60,000 carburetors sold only 500 were intended for the consumption of pure alcohol, all the others being destined for the use of gasoline or of carbureted alcohol. The sale of alcohol motors has been equally unimportant. Probably 100 petroleum or gas motors are sold to 1 alcohol motor, for three reasons: (1) The high cost of the alcohol; (2) the greater consumption per horsepower hour than of either petroleum or gas; (3) the difficulties arising from oxidation.

The principle upon which the alcohol carburetor referred to operates is the same as of the carburetor for gasoline. These carburetors are manufactured for motors of from 4 horsepower upward; they differ from the form intended for use with gasoline, etc., in that the reheating system is more intense. They operate as regularly as the other carburetors. In their application to motors their advantages and disadvantages are thus described to me: Additional suppleness in movement, but increased consumption as compared with gasoline; initial heating of carburetor necessary; possible oxidation of plugs, pistons; and

piston rings, unless care be taken to run the motor with gasoline during the last moments of use.

The motors operating with alcohol comprise two categories—stationary motors and motors of automobiles. Those of the first class are generally gas motors transformed by the simple addition of a carburetor and by some modifications of detail. The automobile motors are the same as those designed for the consumption of gasoline with another form of carburetor.

A method of using alcohol has lately been tried, consisting of forcing the alcohol at a desired temperature through a vaporizer in a quantity strictly measured to meet the machine's need at the moment. At the last public competitions for a 6-horsepower motor the consumption was 410 grams per horsepower hour, as against 578 grams with the carburetor above referred to.

M. Paul Barbier, president of the Technical Society of the Alcohol Industry, informs me that the use of alcohol at the same price as petroleum, and even at a slightly greater price, is more economical, since carburation of the alcohol when well done permits more complete utilization of calorific power than in the case of the petroleum products. M. Barbier adds that all motors operating on the explosion principle may be fed with alcohol if the construction of the cylinder, or rather of the explosion chamber, is modified. He says that injection carburetors and those operating upon the principle of vaporization and circulation give good results.

The minister of agriculture prepared a report upon the competitions organized by his department in 1901-2, which contains considerable information on this subject. Nearly all manufacturers have fully realized that, owing to the different properties of gasoline and alcohol, the use of the latter liquid, if rendered not only possible but practicable, would offer certain real advantages in numerous cases, as, for example, in the merchant and military marine, where the use of gasoline is out of the question because of its danger. They have not worked out any system as yet, however, which seems to respond adequately to the various requirements.

ROBERT P. SKINNER, *Consul-General.*

MARSEILLE, FRANCE, *October 18, 1904.*

HOSIERY AND GLOVE TRADE OF CHEMNITZ.

(*From United States Consul Monaghan, Chemnitz, Germany.*)

AMERICAN VERSUS CHEMNITZ HOSIERY.

As is well known, Chemnitz is the great hosiery center of Germany. This industry contributes by far the greatest bulk to the export trade from Chemnitz to the United States. But other countries, both far

and near, are also heavy buyers of the cotton, woolen, and silk hosiery of this city. Large quantities are annually shipped to South America, India, and China. It is especially in the finer grade of hosiery that Germany excels. The cheap machine-made American hose, produced on a colossal scale and exploited by gigantic capitalistic enterprises, are already proving themselves dangerous competitors in all parts of the world and, with some touch of irony, have even been shipped into Chemnitz to compete with the German hose on the oriental market. It is hardly a year ago that a local enterprising dealer and shipper in textiles conceived the idea of taking up a good line of American hose and exploiting them for the eastern markets. Since Chemnitz is a great meeting place for oriental buyers, who annually pay a visit to the city in order to buy up stock for the coming seasons, it offered an excellent opportunity for pushing cheap American machine-made hose. It is said that the firm in question is doing a good and rapidly growing business. The attention of American manufacturers of cheap hosiery is called to this new market for their product. It is hardly necessary to point out that the first man in the field always has the best chance in the market, other things being equal.

EXPORTS OF HOSIERY TO THE UNITED STATES.

The export trade in hosiery from Chemnitz to the United States during the last ten or twelve years has been characterized mainly by a continuous decline from 1890 to 1900, and a rapid increase from 1900 to 1903. During the year ending June 30, 1904, another decline is registered, which was undoubtedly caused partly by an overfilling of the American markets during the preceding year, and the oncoming Presidential election, as well as other economic changes in both Germany and America.

The following statistics show these fluctuations in the hosiery export of Chemnitz to the United States during the last decade:

Exports of hosiery from Chemnitz to the United States during the years ended June 30, 1891 to 1904.

Year.	Cotton hosiery.	Woolen hosiery.	Silk hosiery.	Total.
1891	\$5, 118, 410	\$116, 045	\$185, 008	\$5, 419, 463
1892	4, 494, 150	141, 179	158, 672	4, 794, 001
1893	4, 865, 061	118, 414	176, 764	5, 160, 229
1894	4, 108, 368	56, 136	60, 438	4, 224, 942
1895	5, 366, 992	143, 705	149, 588	5, 660, 235
1896	4, 302, 430	253, 144	63, 189	4, 618, 763
1897	4, 324, 159	221, 634	40, 259	4, 586, 052
1898	3, 223, 865	53, 037	52, 531	3, 329, 433
1899	3, 177, 825	90, 206	37, 443	3, 305, 474
1900	3, 515, 001	66, 418	41, 735	3, 623, 154
1901	3, 919, 213	56, 499	42, 724	4, 018, 436
1902	3, 778, 126	66, 138	61, 729	3, 905, 993
1903	4, 751, 661	72, 625	94, 725	4, 919, 011
1904	4, 314, 751	61, 875	90, 785	4, 467, 411

From the above it will be seen that while the export last year shows a decline from that of the preceding year it was nevertheless a very good one, and was heavier than during the closing years of the last century. However, since the close of the year ended June 30, 1904, the decline has been much more rapid, and if it continues the falling off will be very great by the end of the year.

CHEMNITZ GLOVE TRADE.

The following table shows the changes in the export of all kinds of gloves from Chemnitz to the United States during the last fourteen years:

Exports of gloves from Chemnitz to the United States in the years ended June 30, 1890 to 1904.

Year.	Cotton gloves.	Woolen gloves.	Silk gloves.	Total.
1890	\$165,691	\$686,171	\$681,652	\$1,833,514
1891	359,806	263,590	501,821	1,125,217
1892	319,640	344,081	472,214	1,135,935
1893	470,823	461,642	530,914	1,463,379
1894	223,491	200,807	145,301	569,599
1895	246,800	164,274	374,358	785,432
1896	256,637	381,456	271,498	909,591
1897	233,108	293,882	115,451	642,441
1898	244,888	36,162	142,390	423,440
1899	320,701	134,285	147,775	602,761
1900	420,522	108,876	111,568	640,966
1901	622,664	118,212	96,621	837,497
1902	764,812	419,528	91,647	1,275,987
1903	1,124,754	785,914	435,906	2,346,574
1904	1,116,341	285,258	248,805	1,650,404

From the above it appears that during the last two years the export of cotton gloves has experienced a remarkable increase. This branch of the Chemnitz export trade deserves close attention from American dealers in cotton gloves. In spite of a general decline in trade in other branches of hosiery and gloves, cotton gloves have jumped ahead at a suprising rate while woolen and silk gloves were bought in rapidly decreasing quantities. There is every reason to believe that if our present tariff continues the export in this line will fall off still further.

J. F. MONAGHAN, *Consul.*

CHEMNITZ, GERMANY, *October 25, 1904.*

BRITISH HALL MARK ON FOREIGN PLATE.

(From United States Consul Mahin, Nottingham, England.)

A new law regulating the hall marking of foreign gold and silver plate has just gone into operation in this country. In 1876 an act was passed providing that foreign gold and silver plate should bear, in addition to the marks stamped on plate of British manufacture, "the letter F on an oval escutcheon, in order to denote that such gold or

silver plate was imported from foreign parts, and was not wrought or made in England, Scotland, or Ireland." This act failed to accomplish the intended purpose—the letter F being insufficient to accurately distinguish, in the purchaser's mind, the foreign from the British article. The new act was the result of complaints from British manufacturers, who averred that "foreigners were now bringing their plate into this country for the purpose of getting the lion stamped on it, and so securing, by aid of the British hall mark, a better price for their manufactures in their own and in neutral markets."

The new law provides that when "any plate or article imported from a foreign part is brought to an assay office in the United Kingdom to be assayed, stamped, or marked, the plate or article shall be marked in such manner as His Majesty may determine by order in council, so as readily to distinguish whether the plate or other article was wrought or made in England, Scotland, or Ireland, or was imported from foreign parts." A written statement must accompany the articles sent to be assayed and marked, setting forth their country of origin, save in the case of plate brought from a bonded warehouse in charge of an officer of customs under the revenue act of 1883. If it is not known whether the plate is of British or foreign manufacture it is treated as foreign.

FRANK W. MAHIN, *Consul*.

NOTTINGHAM, ENGLAND, *November 7, 1904.*

German Shipbuilding Statistics.—The following statistics relative to shipbuilding in Germany cover the five years ended September 30, 1903:

Item.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.
Workmen employed.....number..	31,474		35,026		31,618
Consumption of iron and steel.....tons..	98,876	92,540	102,875	106,204	94,152
Percentage of foreign iron and steel, per cent.....	27.2	23.5	8.2	6.1	1.7
Tonnage of vessels built.....tons..	256,968	237,181	254,487	291,153	227,124
Value of vessels built.....	\$26,000,000	\$31,000,000	\$32,000,000	\$28,000,000	\$31,000,000

In the last two years the German shipbuilding industry seems to have declined.—*William F. Wright, Consul-General, Munich, Germany, October 29, 1904.*

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ROUEN AS A COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL CENTER.

(From United States Consul Haynes, Rouen, France.)

Reports from this consulate have dealt with the advantages of the port of Rouen as a distributing center for American imports, and also as a terminal for a French-American regular line of steamers, but they have apparently produced little effect except to cause inquiries concerning the matter by some British shipowners.

Few ports combine a fluvial, maritime, and regional port in one as Rouen does, and so great are its facilities, and so unheedingly do the \$120,000,000 worth of American goods entering France and the \$48,000,000 worth going from Paris to the United States yearly pass them by, that I beg to submit additional facts.

ROUEN AS A FLUVIAL PORT.

Last year over 1,000,000 tons of merchandise ascended the Seine from Rouen; a part of it debarked within 100 miles of Lyon, and 10,000 tons passed over half the distance from Rouen to the Mediterranean. Through the canals Escaret and Sambre a portion of the chemical products of Rouen pass into Belgium, while wood, grain, and liquid embarked at Rouen are shipped as far east as Nancy, and even across the frontier into Germany.

I wish that American exporters to France could partake somewhat of the interest aroused in me by watching and studying the activity and statistics of this great fluvial, maritime, and regional port. The very nature of goods exported to this country from the United States renders water carriage especially valuable. Shippers of Florida fruits north are compelled by the nature of the goods to reckon upon quickness of transit rather than upon its cheapness, but American wheat, timber, or machines entering France will take a longer route if it is a less expensive one. Norwegian feldspar entering at Rouen strikingly emphasizes this point. The most of it is embarked directly into lighters and is carried into the heart of France, into the department of the Loire. There, upon the Canal de Briare, is an immense button factory where hundreds of hands are employed in turning the imported feldspar into buttons. That feldspar from Norway is used, when in the heart of France this same kind of feldspar is found in abundance and of a quality equaling that of the Norwegian product, is explained

by the fact that Norway is nearer the manufactory in regard to the cost of transportation than the French feldspar only 100 miles distant. Such would not be the case if these 100 miles possessed water-carrying facilities, or if feldspar were a perishable article.

THE WATERWAYS OF FRANCE.

France possesses an almost perfect system of canals and rivers made navigable through deepened and trained channels and locks, affording uniform depths for navigation over great distances. But there are reasons that impede to a great extent river navigation and canal construction in France, elsewhere than in the basin of the Seine and its tributaries, and these reasons explain the remarkable decline of the Loire, Garonne, and the Rhone water traffic, and the increased activity of that on the Seine.

The superiority of the Seine as a waterway is due to nature. In the configuration of the country, in its geological composition, and in the rainfall, its basin differs in important respects from other French river basins. The Seine and its affluents, excepting the Yonne, take their rise at low altitudes, and in their upper courses flow through permeable cretaceous strata that moderate their floods and regulate their flow. The affluents of the other great rivers of France—the Loire, Garonne, and Rhone—rise in the highest peaks and plateaus of the central mountains, in the Pyrenees and Alps, and, rushing down steep slopes of granite and other crystalline impermeable rocks, are naturally violent and irregular. The Loire at Roanne, the great manufacturing center of the department of the Loire and the highest point up the valley of the river to which a canal has been carried, varies in volume from 15 or 20 cubic meters (529 to 706 cubic feet) a second in dry weather to 6,000 or 7,000 cubic meters (211,878 to 247,212 cubic feet) after heavy rains. Lower down, at Orleans, its bed, though twice as wide as that of the Seine at Paris, often contains at midsummer but half of the water of the latter, and in its worst floods the Loire between Orleans and Tours rolls a furious volume of from 8,000 to 10,000 cubic meters (282,525 to 353,316 cubic feet) a second. On the other hand, the Seine flows under the bridges at Paris 250 cubic meters (8,829 cubic feet) a second, and at its highest floods seldom more than 2,000 cubic meters (70,632 cubic feet). The most turbulent of its tributaries, the Yonne, never throws into it, after the most persistent rains, more than 1,000 cubic meters (35,316 cubic feet) per second, and the floods of its two great affluents, owing to differences of slope, length, and soil, do not reach it at the same time.

The Garonne and Rhone differ little, as compared with the Seine, from the Loire.

The numerous points of juncture of the Seine with adjacent countries sufficiently attest its superiority, being so numerous that to describe them fully would require a volume.

ROUEN AS A MARITIME PORT.

For a fluvial and maritime port no better place exists than where a long and steady volume of fresh water mingles with salt water, and Rouen is situated at such a point. Its distance of 65 miles from the sea in former times constituted an almost insurmountable obstacle to ships frequenting its port, and even now, when the Lower Seine is sufficiently deep to admit vessels of heavy draft, sailing ships compose only 4 per cent of its total tonnage. These vessels are obliged to support the expense of 20 to 40 cents per ton for pilotage in ascending, and 15 to 25 cents in descending, while steamers, less hindered by the necessity, which lies upon every heavy-burdened vessel entering at Rouen, of timing their ascent and descent with the tide, have a great advantage, and can often come and go without pilotage.

The quadrupling within the last twenty years of the registered tonnage of shipping entering and leaving Rouen attests that the deepening of the channel called the Lower Seine, leading from the port to the sea, has contributed as much to the development of the port as the projecting of its inland waterways, and that 5,000 vessels brought last year four times as much as the 3,805 vessels entering and clearing twenty years ago sufficiently affirms the difference of the class of vessels now frequenting this port. In 1880 a vessel drawing 16 feet hardly dared venture up the Seine at spring tides, while at present vessels drawing 23 feet, with cargoes of 3,000 to 5,000 tons, enter at neap tides. Nothing more conclusively shows the development of Rouen as a maritime port than the comparison of the points from which vessels were and are now freighted direct for Rouen. Twenty-five years ago not a single vessel entered from the East, vessels from there chartered for this district discharging at Havre, while at present cargoes enter direct from Australia, from the western coast of America, and from the South American republics. Briefly, in 1880 the majority of vessels entering at Rouen were coasters, while at present 85 per cent of them are ocean-going vessels freighted direct for this port.

ROUEN AS A REGIONAL PORT.

Rouen is not only the maritime port of its 160,000 inhabitants; it is the port of Elbeuf, with 50,000 inhabitants; Sotteville-les-Rouen, with 20,000; Darnetal, with 7,000; Petit-Quevilly, with 14,000; Caudebec-les-Elbeuf, with 50,000; Maromme, with 4,000; St. Etienne du Rouvray, with 6,000; Deville-les-Rouen, with 7,000, and others whose inhabitants amount to many thousands, all situated within a radius of 10 miles. Its accessibility to the coal fields of northern France and the English coal and iron fields has caused the gathering around it of numerous industries, which obtain their raw material through the maritime basin. Seagoing vessels enter here, but go no farther.

Their cargoes by transshipment into lighters take advantage of the unsurpassed fluvial facilities, which reach every port of France and into neighboring countries. Rouen also separates lower Normandy from upper Normandy. All along the 65 miles to the ocean there is no crossing except by boat. The last bridge in descending the Seine is at Rouen, and the greater part of the communications of all the rich country between the city and the sea pass by this way.

INDUSTRIES OF ROUEN.

During 1903 and for the last six months local industries have for the most part been dull.

Cotton industry.—It is strange that Rouen is preeminently a cotton manufacturing district, while no department of France grows the raw material, and it is a fact for study that raw cotton from the United States enters here and Rouennaise cotton cloth is sold in New York. No such goods, however, have been invoiced at this consulate for the last few months. For a great part of the time looms have been stopped two days in the week, and only a few days ago a manufacturer here complained that "your American speculation took advantage of a reported short crop." The unexceptionally bad weather of the summer of 1903 was also very unfavorable. On several occasions last year discontented cotton spinners and weavers came to the consulate asking for information concerning the cotton industry in the United States and the cheapest way to get there. Weaving in this district, in the Vosges, and the Rhone has never experienced such a crisis since 1870.

Tanning.—Last year the small slaughter in South America occasioned an advance in price equaled only twice in the last twenty years. During the first months of this year the fabrication of leather in this vicinity suffered greatly, the work of the drying room being completely suspended for weeks on account of the humid atmosphere. Raw hides, however, from some unaccountable reason, still maintained their normal price.

Chemicals.—Foreign importation continues despite the low local prices resulting from the competition brought about by the establishment of new plants and the struggle between the electric and the chemical processes. Considerable muriate of ammonia is shipped from this district to New York. The shipments of cobalt made some years ago have about ceased.

Alcohol.—The crisis of this industry, brought about mostly by the law concerning the "brulleurs de cru," grows in intensity, and the great apple harvest of this year seems to increase the manufacture of cider rather than relieve the situation. Distillation of the beet root is not so much affected, but grain distillation is greatly diminishing, and at present rests under the oft-threatened increased tariff on wheat.

IMPORTS AT ROUEN.

Coal.—The imports of this article, which have doubled within the last eight years, were about the same last year as in 1902, the figures being 975,799 and 956,284 tons, respectively. England furnishes practically all the coal entering here. In view of the proximity of the northern coal fields to this port, it would be natural for considerable French coal to be brought here, but the amount is no more than one-eighth of the total. If Rouen were dispossessed of her excellent water transportation facilities England would not enter one-half the coal she does. For instance, of the 975,799 tons coming here last year, 674,816 tons were transshipped, seagoing vessels moored here discharging from one side onto the quay for Rouen consignment, and at the same time unloading from the other side into lighters for canal delivery at Paris and other interior canal ports. From a study of the conditions for the last few years, from the disappointed hopes of American exporters of coal who have entered it upon the Rouen quays only to have it reconsigned, from the still unsolved problem of cheap ocean transportation and the strikes in American coal fields, it appears that the American article will not enter France to any great extent, at least the northern part of it, until the lapse of the fifteen years given by French geological experts for the exhaustion of this country's coal supply.

Grain and flour.—The imports of wheat, oats, rye, etc., and flour at Rouen for the last four years have been as follows:

Imports of grain and flour into Rouen, 1900 to 1903.

Year.	Entered by maritime basin.	Cleared by fluvial basin.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
1900	227,885	158,427
1901	320,852	251,314
1902	159,876	142,766
1903	124,524	98,621

The increased harvests of the last two years explain the great decrease of imports. That the clearances and entries are so nearly the same is due to the great agricultural resources of this district. An occasional cargo of American wheat enters here, but it is always consigned inland. No corn from any country enters to any extent either this or any other French port. Virtually the French know nothing of corn. Grits and corn meal can not, with perhaps one or two exceptions, be bought outside of Paris. Breakfast foods are unheard of, and no bread but the baker's light bread, made of wheat, is eaten.

Wine.—This is an important import at Rouen. Its course, including brandy, cider, beer, etc., has been as follows in the last four years:

Imports of wine, brandy, cider, etc., into Rouen, 1900 to 1903.

Year.	Entered by maritime basin.	Cleared by fluvial basin.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
1900	220, 380	253, 910
1901	165, 762	146, 009
1902	205, 564	187, 692
1903	269, 961	204, 575

The wine entering here comes from Algeria, Bordeaux, and Spain—that from the latter country being used mostly for mixing with native wine to give body and color. Much of the wine that passes through Rouen to Paris, and other great centers for which Rouen is the most convenient terminal seaport, is French wine grown in the extreme south of France and embarked at Cette, Port Vendres, and Marseille. As it is free of customs duties it is but natural that its import should be important.

Timber and wood.—This office is in continual receipt of letters from the extreme southern and western parts of the United States asking as to the possibility of the introduction of hard-wood lumber in this district. They are all answered in the words of the largest wood and lumber dealer in Rouen, who remarked to me: “Tell them there is absolutely no market for it; but for pitch pine, yes.” For the last six years the imports of this article have ranged between 275,000 and 350,000 tons, about 10 per cent of which is transshipped by the fluvial basin to Paris and ports of middle France. Most of the lumber entering here comes from Norway, Sweden, Austria, and Russia.

Petroleum.—With the exception of an occasional cargo of wheat and lumber, the United States enters nothing at Rouen by water except raw petroleum, but this comes in large quantities. The imports of this mineral at Rouen have increased steadily for the last fifteen years. They averaged between 45,000 and 50,000 tons annually for the four years previous to 1894, since which every year has shown a greater import than the year preceding. Last year 171,996 tons entered. The five refineries situated on the banks of the Seine at Rouen convert this oil into a French commercial necessity. The establishment of refineries in France is due to the higher tariff existing on refined than on raw oil.

EXPORTS FROM ROUEN TO THE UNITED STATES.

The principal exports from this consular district to the United States consist of paper stock, pulled rabbit skins, hatters' fur, muriate of ammonia, and clarinets. The export of paper stock is greater than any other, for the reason that the principal industry of this section (woolen and cotton manufacturing) furnishes many thousands of

pounds of new cuttings, wastes, thread, cotton-bale bagging, old ropes, etc., and in such a district there are, naturally, many rags gathered.

The following shows the exports to the United States in the year ending June 30, 1904.

Exports from Rouen to the United States in the year ending June 30, 1904.

Articles.	Value.	Articles.	Value.
Angora wool.....	\$3,669	Hatters' fur.....	\$35,278
Brushes.....	799	Household goods.....	781
Chloral.....	400	Mistletoe.....	58
Church clocks.....	1,214	Muriate of ammonia.....	21,155
Clover seed.....	277	Ocher.....	1,898
Cobalt.....	1,867	Paper stock.....	176,640
Clarinet.....	17,876	Prepared bristles.....	19,648
Coney fur and waste.....	377	Pulled rabbit skins.....	58,571
Cotton goods.....	6,560	Surrogate caoutchouc.....	4,129
Electrical appliances.....	2,086	Toothbrushes.....	313
Flint pebbles.....	275	Varnished leather.....	271
Fur-cutting machine.....	151	Woolen goods.....	7,296

AMERICAN GOODS IN ROUEN.

Most American goods do not enter here direct but come from Paris or Havre; they consist chiefly of radiators, typewriters, desks, dried fruits, electrical appliances, sewing machines, and agricultural implements.

Besides the roll-top desk, which made its appearance two years ago, no other American furniture is to be found. The furniture magazines coming to this office seem to be appreciated by the dealers to whom they are handed, but when asked about trying a few pieces of American furniture they shake their heads. The reason is plain. Their customers, and in fact all Frenchmen, fail to appreciate the poet's happy medium. "They are not the first by whom the new are tried, but rather the last to lay the old aside." The French consider French furniture superior in solidity to either the American or English, and though the French washstands may be clumsy, their chairs uncomfortable, and their tables heavy, they endure. In furniture, as in everything else, a Frenchman does not buy a thing because it is cheap; he thinks rather of the service it may render his grandson or great-grandson.

Agricultural implements are still being sold throughout this district, but their sale is not what it might be were certain conditions fulfilled. Despite the small divisions of land no field is more "ripe unto the harvest." Many American implements are unsold because the agriculturist of this country does not know their use. More American plows will come this way when the French farmer is thoroughly convinced that a single plow, always put to the left of a row in going and to the right in coming, is much easier both for man and horse than the heavy, unwieldy, double moldboard and double right-and-left-hand plow that necessitates turning down or over at the

end of every row, presumably for no other reason than that one row must be finished before another is begun. The American manufacturer who turns his plows over to a French agent can not expect this agent, a manufacturer himself, to insist upon the merits of the American make to the detriment of his own.

Articles virtually unknown here are lanterns, modern spring window shades, corn meal and grits, rock crushers, barbers' chairs, laundry machinery, bath cabinets, lightning rods, chewing gum, and rocking chairs.

American manufacturers often make the mistake of thinking that Paris is France. Less expensive markets can often be found elsewhere in this country. This consular district lacks scores of conveniences and comforts essential to American civilized life, which could be furnished this country at noncompetitive prices, but not by means of circulars, catalogues, and ornamental agents. If intelligent personal work were done in Normandy it would pay, but it will take a great many years to reach this market by means of an agent in a showy office at Paris.

THORNWELL HAYNES, *Consul*.

ROUEN, FRANCE, *October 31, 1904.*

AMERICAN TRADE IN FRANCE.

(From United States Consul Covert, Lyon, France.)

No changes of importance have occurred in the commerce and industry of this consular district and its trade relations with the United States since my last report. In the business places dealing especially in American goods I find the same articles sold as in the past, such as sewing machines, typewriters, cash registers, small cider presses, sausage grinders, ice-cream freezers, refrigerators, and American canned meats and fruits. I am told that a material decline is noticeable this year in the arrival of canned meats, which is in all probability due to the strike of the meat packers in Chicago. A marked increase is noted in the exports of live stock from our country and a falling off in the exports of canned and preserved, salted and pickled beef and tallow. This decrease in the month of August was 16,500,000 pounds, compared with the same month of 1903. The decline was naturally felt in France and in this district, but as Lyon is not a seaport and as no account is kept of the imports into the city from other countries it is impossible to tell just what the falling off amounts to.

Dealers in such standard articles as are mentioned above inform me that their trade continues about the same from year to year and that there is but little competition. The representatives of American sewing-machine companies have considerable competition from Germany.

They assert that the representatives of German companies can sell from 25 to 40 per cent cheaper on account of the preferential tariff in favor of Germany. If the United States had a reciprocity treaty with France by which certain kinds of American machinery would be admitted at low tariff duties in return for a similar concession to certain products of France, it would greatly augment the purchases of France from our country. The only competition in American agricultural implements is among Americans themselves, but when the monopoly secured by existing patents has expired, reciprocity treaty will be necessary with France to protect the interests of our manufacturers of agricultural implements.

In the largest stove store in Lyon I found over 20 stoves made in Belfast, Ireland, and only a half dozen from the United States. Besides the preferential duties which permit the sale of Irish stoves at a lower figure, they are largely made of porcelain, which is very popular in France.

I called a few days ago upon a dealer in machinery to show him a prospectus for an American tool company, and I found there two representatives of Paris houses seeking a market for similar goods. The proprietor of the house told me that he bought annually large quantities of goods, machinery, piping, pincers, vises, shears, etc., from Germany, but that he would rather buy from the United States. He purchased from Germany solely because, as he said, "Germany is nearer, it is almost at our door. If there were a large house in Paris where we could buy all these goods, of American make, or if the Americans would establish a house in Switzerland or Germany, near the frontier, we would buy of that house."

The fact is that Germany is the most redoubtable competitor that the United States has. Her merchants and manufacturers form combinations which are similar to our trusts, but not the slightest opposition is ever heard to such combinations in that country. A coal trust in Germany has succeeded in bringing coal into the heart of the coal fields of France and underselling French coal companies. German commercial representatives are all over France, displaying samples of their goods, while American manufacturers and merchants invariably depend upon their consuls to open markets for them.

Given a reciprocity treaty between the United States and France, Americans could practically monopolize the foreign trade of this country if they would send their representatives over here to work up a business. All dealers in piping, machinery, and tools of any kind that I have ever talked with tell me that they would rather buy American goods than those of any other country. They think that whatever is made by Americans is better made than similar goods produced in any other country. They tell me that they can sell American-made tools or machinery better than any other machinery,

solely on account of the superior réputation of our products. Our manufacturers do not enjoy all the advantages that they ought to derive from this reputation, because they do not work the field as it ought to be worked.

To begin with, a reciprocity treaty is indispensable, for the protective duties in France are practically prohibitive on many of our manufactures. I will cite something that occurred in this city a few years ago in proof of this assertion. A young man was here from the United States representing a manufacturer of saws in our country. I visited the dealers with him, and they were greatly pleased with the saws he showed them, and astonished at the low prices. They agreed to give him a large order, and he looked forward to the opening of a prosperous trade in this city. After returning to Paris he met the principal of his company. They made a careful study of the tariff duties on manufactures coming from the United States into France, and they found the duties so high that it was considered useless to attempt to sell in this country. That is only one case of a dozen that I might mention.

A sewing machine coming into France pays a duty of 50 francs (\$9.65), per 100 kilograms (220 pounds), if it comes from the United States. If it comes from Germany or any other country which has a treaty of reciprocity with France it pays only 35 francs (\$6.75) duty. The duty on an American typewriter is 150 francs (\$28.95) per 100 kilograms (220 pounds), and on a German typewriter, 100 francs (\$19.30). As a consequence the German company that is now opening an agency in Lyon for its typewriting machines can undersell our American agents. This difference runs through nearly all lines of manufactures, placing our people at a great disadvantage compared to their competitors on this side of the water.

The officers of the Lyon Chamber of Commerce are of the opinion that all the great nations of Europe are on the eve of raising their tariff duties. They are holding back only to see what England will do in the matter of protection. The highest economic authorities in Europe express the opinion that if the policy of Mr. Chamberlain should triumph it will make a commercial and industrial revolution.

FRENCH IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The imports into France during the first eight months of 1904 were: Cereals, wines, and spirituous liquors, \$106,255,571; raw materials necessary in industry, \$366,828,152; manufactured articles, \$105,024,617; total value of imports, \$578,108,340. This total differs but little from that of former years.

The exports of merchandise and raw material from France during the first eight months of the year were: Manufactured articles, \$276,740,963; grain and flour, \$1,129,436; flour and other foods,

\$5,797,141; green vegetables, salted and preserved, \$3,200,712; total value of food supplies exported, \$81,991,997; total value of merchandise exported, \$550,381,867. This is a very slight excess over the exports of the first eight months of any of the last nine years.

JOHN C. COVERT, *Consul*.

LYON, FRANCE, *October 19, 1904.*

Value of trade of the United States with France, 1865 to 1904.^a

Year ended June 30—	Imports from France.	Exports to France.	Year ended June 30—	Imports from France.	Exports to France.
1865.....	\$6,684,029	\$11,078,611	1885.....	\$56,985,352	\$46,708,950
1866.....	22,922,065	51,312,103	1886.....	63,417,490	41,681,746
1867.....	29,386,239	34,417,166	1887.....	68,107,624	57,257,670
1868.....	25,315,605	26,416,991	1888.....	71,365,266	39,210,308
1869.....	30,284,531	33,114,408	1889.....	69,566,618	46,120,041
1870.....	42,731,138	45,556,247	1890.....	77,672,311	49,977,024
1871.....	28,099,279	26,652,608	1891.....	76,688,995	60,693,190
1872.....	43,140,156	31,432,118	1892.....	68,554,793	99,126,707
1873.....	33,977,200	33,781,506	1893.....	76,076,215	46,619,138
1874.....	51,691,896	42,964,311	1894.....	47,549,974	55,315,511
1875.....	59,773,148	33,632,727	1895.....	61,580,509	45,149,137
1876.....	50,959,577	39,792,702	1896.....	66,266,967	47,040,660
1877.....	47,556,292	45,139,918	1897.....	67,530,231	57,594,541
1878.....	43,378,870	55,319,138	1898.....	52,730,848	95,459,290
1879.....	50,684,601	89,669,627	1899.....	62,146,056	60,596,899
1880.....	69,344,412	100,063,044	1900.....	73,012,085	83,335,097
1881.....	69,806,375	94,197,451	1901.....	75,458,739	78,714,927
1882.....	88,897,606	50,010,818	1902.....	82,840,036	71,512,984
1883.....	97,989,164	58,682,223	1903.....	90,050,172	77,285,239
1884.....	70,842,413	50,899,885	1904.....	81,410,347	84,279,480

^a From data of the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

LABOR TROUBLES IN MARSEILLE.

(From *United States Consul-General Skinner, Marseille, France.*)

A series of disastrous labor troubles have affected the general trade of France this year, Marseille being the greatest sufferer. The president of the Society for the Defense of Commerce, in a detailed statement, estimates the direct local loss resulting from the maritime trade strike of sixty days at 80,000,000 francs (\$15,440,000). The indirect losses, business reverses, and misery to the working population resulting from the flocking to the city of thousands of laborers who took the strikers' places can not be computed. The lockout of the summer, which has completely overshadowed in importance the numerous small strikes that preceded it, had its origin in a struggle for and against the "open shop" policy.

DOCK LABORERS' STRIKES IN MARSEILLE.

Two years ago the Marseille dock laborers concluded their last general strike by consenting to a contract requiring them to submit new grievances as they might arise to a designated arbitrator and in the

meantime to remain at work. They continued, however, to perfect their organization, bringing into affiliation the seamen, coal handlers, and truck drivers. This federation made membership in its organization a condition without which dockers and carters were unable to obtain work.

It has been regarded as astonishing that labor leaders should seek a depressed branch of commerce like the French carrying trade for the furtherance of their enterprises. The dockers were already receiving 6 francs (\$1.16) per day, a wage rate considerably higher than that prevailing in French cities for unskilled labor. It is not well known, perhaps, that these dockers as a rule worked for contractors whose business continued to be profitable even when the shipping companies themselves were barely able to pay fixed charges. Many stockholders in these companies complained that if the contractors were able to profit by the hiring and directing of dockers to load and unload ships, the operations might have been carried on by the navigation companies themselves to the profit of their depleted treasuries. It was this situation which enabled the common laborer, when told that the carrying companies were living out of their reserves, to respond by pointing to the prosperous contractors, whose fortunes showed no material diminution during the dullest periods. Thus, during a time trying enough to the legitimate industries and the transportation companies of France, an excuse, if not a justification, could be found for new exactions on the part of labor.

These exactions took the form of a series of boycotts against different shipping companies, to the absolute neglect by the labor organization of its contract obligation to refer all troubles to an arbitrator. Without the slightest notice, the men at work upon a ship would demand the discharge of a foreman, sometimes even a captain or mate, and exact compliance under threat of tying up the entire business of the line. For quite a year no transportation company felt safe from one hour to the next, and ships' officers and dock foremen lived in a state of anxiety, not knowing when they might be sacrificed in order to save their employers from a sudden cessation of work. It inevitably followed that discipline became relaxed and demoralization and discouragement followed. No one cause, but a variety of incidents like these, finally led to the great retaliatory movement of the past summer, when captains refused to take out their ships and foremen declined to supervise the loading and unloading of vessels until they could obtain guarantees that the proscriptions and boycotts should cease, once for all.

For two months the business of the port was completely blocked. Eventually negotiations resulted in an agreement on the part of the labor organization to refer the situation to an arbitrator, designated in the contract of 1901. The arbitrator immediately ruled that the men

should return to work, and added that if the old contract had been adhered to the conflict would have been avoided.

As the reimposition of the contract of 1901 meant the "open-shop" policy, as respects the port of Marseille, the men rejected the sentence, although they had previously agreed to accept it. Their own officers, astonished by this decision, resigned, and the employers set about to resume work in their own way. Employment was offered to all who would sign the contract of 1901, whether belonging to the union or not. Ample military protection was afforded, and desertions from the labor organization were rapid. In three days the strike was broken, but not before several thousand outside laborers had taken the strikers' places.

It is now proposed to safeguard the future by the formation of a maritime union. This union, if organized, will consist of employers, foremen, and laborers. The three parties are to have a voice in the organization, which will include a provision for the arbitration of future difficulties. The maritime union will enroll laborers of two categories, one consisting of a certain number of men who are to receive annual salaries, while men of the other class will receive a per diem compensation and be called upon when the permanent laborers are insufficient in number. Contractors and navigation companies will call upon the maritime union from day to day to supply a sufficient number of men for their particular requirements. By making the annual salaries of the guaranteed class attractive, and holding out the prospect of promotion to the per diem class, it is hoped that the enterprise may ingraft itself upon the local system.

OTHER STRIKES IN FRANCE.

There were 567 strikes in France in 1903 against 512 in 1902. In 416 cases in 1903 the strikers were organized. Ten unions were organized during strikes, and three were dissolved in consequence of strikes. The strikers were successful in 122 cases, involving 12,526 men; 222 strikes were settled by adjustment, involving 89,736 men; 223 strikes, involving 20,889 men, failed; 10 strikes lasted more than one hundred days.

In 231 cases of strikes occasioned by demands for increased wages, 28,508 men lost 531,318 days of labor, or wages to the amount of 1,842,623 francs (\$355,626), equal to 64.63 francs (\$12.47) per capita. After three hundred days of work, the gross profit accruing to these strikers would be 2,168,983 francs (\$418,613), or a net profit of 11.44 francs (\$2.21) for each striker.

ROBERT P. SKINNER, *Consul-General*.

MARSEILLE, FRANCE, *November 5, 1904.*

SHIPPING AND LOCAL IMPROVEMENTS IN PARA.

(From United States Consul Aymé, Para, Brazil.)

Fifty-nine seagoing steamships ply from Para. Of these the Booth Steamship Company, Limited (British), has 28, of from 1,211 to 2,555 tons. The Lloyd Brasileiro has 10 of 1,999 tons and 2 of 887 tons. The Companhia Gran-Para has 6, the Companhia Costeira do Maranhão 5, the Companhia Paraense 3, and the Companhia Pastoril Paraense 1; these are all boats of much less than 1,000 tons. The Italian Line runs one 2,000-ton boat, and the Hamburg-American 3 of 1,500 tons. The river navigation is carried on by 123 steamers, of which the Companhia do Amazonas Limitada has 30 boats of from 618 to 126 tons, and 54 owners have the remaining 93 boats of from 480 to 5 tons.

The water supply of the city has been much improved. The present supply is 3,011,543 gallons daily of very pure water. New American pumps are now being installed which will bring the daily supply up to 8,083,616 gallons, an hourly supply of 336,817 gallons. Contracts have been made for the construction of a \$25,000 distributing reservoir for the older part of the city.

It is reported that private contracts have been made for considerable harbor improvements, and I am credibly informed that large orders for dredges and machinery have been placed in the United States.

An American company has been formed to establish communication by wireless telegraphy between Para and Manaos, and construction material from the United States is reported now on the way.

Attempts are being made to develop the gold fields of the State, but nothing positive is known, and it would be unwise for American capital to become interested without very careful investigation.

On January 1, 1905, all duties on flour, dried vegetables, canned goods and foods in general will probably be advanced from 40 to 150 per cent.

LOUIS A. AYMÉ, *Consul.*

PARA, BRAZIL, *October 31, 1904.*

TOY AND SILVERWARE INDUSTRIES OF CHEMNITZ.

(From United States Consul Monaghan, Chemnitz, Germany.)

The toy industry is peculiarly susceptible to influences of a very diverse nature, coming largely from the industrial world without. Toys of the cheaper grade are manufactured largely in Nuremberg, Brandenburg, Plötzensee, and in the vicinity of Chemnitz and the

Erzgebirge, while the better grade of toys come from Göppingen, Stuttgart, and also Nuremberg.

The inland demand for toys was good during the year, though complaints are common that the numerous big department stores exercise a baneful influence upon prices and force smaller retailers to sell at a scant profit.

The export to England, the United States, South Africa, and Australia was satisfactory. The export to Canada, which had developed very promisingly during the early part of the year, was cut down severely as soon as the discussion of a preferential tariff was opened, and stopped entirely with the institution of the new tariff. To Switzerland also the export has ceased almost entirely because of the increase in duties on these goods. The trade with Italy and Roumania is reported to have improved, while all effort to establish an export to Spain and France has failed. The price of raw material was favorable during the early part of the year, when stock was purchased, so that the subsequent advance in prices exercised no influence on the industry for the coming season. It is expected, however, that the prices of finished toys will advance next year to offset the increase in the price of raw materials during the past six months.

The export of toys from the Chemnitz consular district to the United States has been growing rapidly during the last few years. Wooden toys are most prominent in this trade, and these are manufactured in the small mountain villages in this part of the Erzgebirge, much of the work being done in the homes of the peasants and the rest in factories. A few large manufacturers generally collect the toys from the peasants, probably improve some of these in their own factories, and then make wholesale shipments to the United States and other countries. The export of toys from Chemnitz to the United States during the years ended June 30, 1903 and 1904, amounted to \$5,300 and \$11,457, respectively.

Conditions in the silverware industry were good during the last year. The demand was good, but silver prices showed a firm tendency to rise, so that toward the close of the year they had been enhanced by 20 per cent, and since competition prevented a commensurate price on the part of the finished articles, manufacturers of silverware had to content themselves with smaller profits.

J. F. MONAGHAN, *Consul*.

CHEMNITZ, GERMANY, *October 25, 1904.*

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

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COTTON GOODS IN CHINA.

(From United States Consul Anderson, Hangchow, China.)

The field for American cotton trade in China is unlimited. The goods manufactured in the United States are needed by the people here; their merit is recognized. The people are disposed to buy them if they can, and in order to sell them it is necessary only to get goods here of such grade that the mass of consumers can afford to use them. This is true of all parts of China, so far as I am able to judge. It certainly is true of this consular district.

There are considerable quantities of American goods already in use in this part of China. Just how great a proportion of the goods consumed are American it is difficult to tell, inasmuch as all this part of China is supplied by means of the Grand Canal system from Shanghai houses. According to the customs returns, there were imported into this one port cotton goods to the value of 18,655 taels (\$13,058) in 1903, 9,693 taels (\$6,785) in 1902, and 9,428 taels (\$6,599) in 1901. The importation of 1903, as shown by the customs report, was typical of the general demand here for several years back. This importation was:

¹
Imports of cotton goods at Hangchow, 1903.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
Shirtings, gray, plain, English	pieces..... 410	\$1,164
Sheetings, gray, plain, American	do..... 20	58
Drills, American	do..... 30	58
Tee cloths, 36-inch	do..... 950	1,995
Cotton, Italian, plain fast black	do..... 60	239
Turkey red cambrics	do..... 25	44
Cotton flannel	do..... 180	378
Handkerchiefs, plain and printed	dozen..... 1,600	528
Towels, honeycomb and huckaback, Japanese	do..... 7,801	3,153
Cotton goods, unclassified	pieces..... 700	266
Cotton yarn, Indian	pounds..... 14,900	3,413
Cotton yarn, Japanese	do..... 6,660	1,514
Cotton thread	do..... 530	243

These figures, however, give little idea of the actual imports of cotton goods to this port and district, since a large part of the imports comes through the likin stations and is not entered in the customs returns of the port. There is considerable difference in the duty on goods shipped by the likin system and by the foreign customs system, especially since merchants who make inland shipments by the foreign customs system must apply for their drawbacks at Shanghai at the time of

shipment, while the certificates are almost a year in coming. The importation of cotton goods into China generally, as shown by the customs, is 40 per cent of the total imports of the Empire, while the cotton imports into Hangchau are only 5 per cent of the total. The local cotton mill may have some influence upon the figures, but it is probable that the total annual value of the cotton imports into the port of Hangchau is close to \$100,000, and the total for the district four times that amount. The proportion of the several varieties of goods in the district generally seems to be about the same as in Hangchau.

The reason other foreign goods, especially Japanese towels, are used here is simply their cheapness. The Japanese manufacturers appreciate the need of a cheap grade of goods for this field and have met the demand. There is no reason why these goods should not come from the United States direct if a similar grade of goods for a similar price is put out.

The financial situation in China generally, especially here and at Hongkong and Canton, is dominated by British banking interests, and Great Britain has almost always a decided advantage in exchange. Still, freight rates from the western coast of the United States are decidedly in favor of the American shipper and present freight rates by the northern route from Chicago and westward ought to work to the advantage of American manufacturers. Credits in China are about the same as in all the Far East. Old established houses have all the time they want, with a low rate of interest beyond a reasonable time, while houses that are not established are more strictly held to early accounting. In general, credits in the East are easier than in Western countries.

The only cotton mill in this consular district, and, indeed, in this part of China, is owned by the Tung Ki Kung Cotton Mill Company. It is well located on the canal front of Hangchau, and seems to be a comparatively modern plant, employing about 1,300 men, women, and children. Its work is confined altogether to the manufacture of cotton yarn. During 1903 it made 3,000,000 pounds of yarn, or 7,500 bales, which it sold at an average price of \$54.60 a bale. Of the cotton used last year about 70 per cent was bought locally and the remainder was brought from Shanghai, most of it being Indian cotton; the year before, 80 per cent was of native production, the rest mostly Indian. The cotton bought locally is mostly raised in Chekiang and Kiangsu provinces. The raising of cotton hereabout seems to be slightly on the increase. The average price for cotton paid by the mill here for the past three years is about \$12.60 per picul of 133 pounds. The mill has had considerable trouble because of lack of capital and cooperation. Its output has been purchased almost altogether by local merchants, though some cotton rope manufactured has been sent to Shanghai.

Much cotton is manufactured in this district by hand, going from the plant to the consumer. The time-honored Chinese methods and implements—the rough home-made gin, the bow, and the old Chinese carding method—are still in control of the situation. Hand spinning and weaving are common, and will probably continue to be common so long as labor is so cheap in China and foreign goods so dear. It is impossible to estimate even approximately the amount of cotton goods thus manufactured, for the work is done by the common people, who do not report their doings.

Dyed goods are generally more common here than print goods, although the latter are coming into fashion at the present time. Blues seem to be the most popular shades. Yellows and some shades of purple are of special significance and should be avoided. The American bale is a satisfactory package for shipment to this part of China.

It is doubtful if American cotton trade here can be increased by correspondence. The field deserves a number of good men who will push American interests, and push them long and persistently. Above all, cheap grades of goods must be made for this market. There is a growing demand here among foreigners and well-to-do Chinese for good grades of cotton goods, as well as other American and foreign high-grade products, but for the mass of the Chinese people, the great field for the American cotton manufacturer, there must be cheap goods, rough perhaps, substantial if possible, but, above all, cheap.

GEORGE E. ANDERSON, *Consul*.

HANGCHAU, CHINA, *October 2, 1904.*

TRADE OF CHEKIANG PROVINCE, CHINA.

(*From United States Consul Anderson, Hangchau, China.*)

The province of Chekiang is probably the richest in China. Generally speaking, its trade condition reflects that of all the central part of the country. At the present time this condition is good, reflecting very clearly the general betterment in Chinese affairs which has characterized the years since the T'ai P'ing rebellion and especially since the temporary setback due to the troubles of 1900. On the whole, the crops this year in Chekiang and central China generally have been satisfactory, although there is a material falling off in the production of both tea and silk. Native cotton manufacture is growing. The importation of opium—generally taken as reflecting the ability of the people to buy luxuries and therefore their financial condition—has increased greatly.

An increase in postage rates became effective October 1. Under the former schedule local letters were sent for one-half cent Mexican (one-fourth cent gold), domestic letters for 1 cent, with a proportionate

charge for parcels. The rate now in effect is 1 cent Mexican for local letters, 2 cents for domestic letters, and the rates for parcels of all classes are practically doubled. Already the increased rate has reduced the volume of postal business, but probably the earnings will be considerably increased.

Another feature promising trouble in the immediate future is an announcement from the customs service that after October 20 fees will be charged for certain documents, among them being a fee of 1 haikwan tael, or about 70 cents gold, for each transit permit issued for the transportation of goods from the coast to other points, and 3 taels for each grain permit covering grain shipments not to exceed 500 piculs of 133 pounds each. These new imposts are held to be contrary to the spirit and even the letter of the new commercial treaties between China and other nations. It is an added tax, which it is thought will be very troublesome and will interfere with trade in such a manner as to cause constant friction and attempts at evasion. There was an attempt during the past summer to levy a likin tax on silk worms in Yu-hang, but the attempt was followed by prompt protest and even rioting on the part of the Chinese concerned, and the obnoxious tax was soon given up.

The opium trade, which is taken as a measure of the financial condition of the people, shows a rather remarkable increase. In 1903 there was imported into this customs district 2,227 piculs (296,859 pounds), valued at \$1,566,214 gold, the largest importation by about 15 per cent in the history of the opium trade. During nine months this year the imports were 1,927 piculs (254,869 pounds), against 1,616 (215,380 pounds) in 1903.

Imports of cotton are running about the same. Japan still has the bulk of the towel and handkerchief trade here and India furnishes most of the imported yarn. The Hangchau cotton mill has been working with full force night and day for practically all the year and has done much more work than heretofore. It has installed a cotton-seed oil plant and is using the refuse of cotton in a more modern way. In short, it is being conducted on better business principles and promises to do more work than ever. Its product, cotton yarn, is consumed almost altogether locally. The cotton crop in this part of China this year is only fair. The cotton does not promise to be of good grade or of unusual quality.

The volume of metal imports into this part of China is increasing. Last year Hangchau imported 32,084 piculs (4,277,867 pounds) of metal manufactures of all kinds, valued at \$175,714 gold. This probably represents a comparatively small part of the total imports, since they are the customs returns, and there is no way of getting at the likin importations. There is an increase this year. The falling off in the Japanese match trade is remarkable, amounting to nearly 25 per cent.

The feature of the import trade most interesting to the United States is the decrease in the imports of American kerosene and the increased importations of the Russian and Sumatran products. For three-quarters of this year, compared with the same part of last year, the figures are: American, 2,015,250 gallons and 2,509,390 gallons; Russian, 239,600 gallons and 19,850 gallons; Sumatran, 836,400 gallons and 277,500 gallons. The Russian and Sumatran oils are of cheaper grade than the American product. It is the same old story of the United States not producing a cheap article for the special trade in China. Imports of sugar and tobacco were about the same during the first three-quarters of this year as they were during the first three-quarters of last year, both in quantity and in value.

There has probably been a falling off in the exports this year of both tea and silk. Of silk there has been exported 4,521 piculs (602,649 pounds), as compared with 2,349 (313,121 pounds) last year, but the fact that 2,524 piculs (336,449 pounds) of this year's crop were refuse silk, against 816 piculs (108,772 pounds) last year, tells the story of the probable decrease. The crop last year was valued at \$1,694,188 gold. This year the merchants say that they have secured enough higher prices for good silk to make up for what they have lacked in the quantity of the higher grades, and that this year's total value will probably equal last year's. The falling off in tea was estimated at the beginning of the season at about 20,000 chests; the actual figures show 95,812 piculs (12,771,739 pounds) this year, against 102,585 (13,674,580 pounds) last year. The crop last year was valued at \$3,068,984 gold. Prices this year seem to be ranging slightly higher than last year.

General conditions have been fairly good. The price of silver has been falling somewhat, but the purchasing power of gold is practically the same, silver prices for commodities rising to allow for exchange. The Mexican dollar changed for 830 cash or ten 10-cent pieces and 3 cents at the beginning of the year and later the price was 850 cash or ten 10-cent pieces and 5 cents. This closely follows the course of money last year. The Hangchau mint is turning out about 300,000 1 and 2 cent pieces a day, sending some of them to Ningpo and other points in the province. The fact that they are running about on a level with cash in the surrounding provinces demonstrates that the supply of copper and silver money is about the same throughout all this part of China.

The Grand Canal, by means of which most of the internal trade of China is carried on, is in need of attention, but there is no indication that it will be had. The number of native freight and passenger boats is increasing, no less than 1,410 junks being in Hangchau port this year during July and August, against 610 last year. While there is abundant talk of new railroad enterprises, and it is expected that the principal portion of the Hankau line will be in operation next year,

there is really little work being done, and the prospect is not as satisfactory as it might be. The freight rates between the coast and the interior and for coast trade were raised last year from 20 to 100 per cent, largely as a result of the combination between the steam launch companies controlling canal trade. Independent boats, however, are cutting the rates, which generally are still reasonable.

Constant agitation for the protection of trade-marks in China has resulted in the drafting of provisional rules for adoption by the Government, and next year will probably see affairs relating thereto on a new basis.

The whole trade situation in China is promising, and, so far as the United States is concerned, is without special features other than the need of American manufacturers studying the Chinese market and markets in the Far East generally and meeting the special demands thereof by special brands of goods. The demand in China is particularly for cheap goods at low prices. The demand for any other classes of goods is comparatively limited. It is probable that prices of silk and similar goods in the near future will run considerably higher because of the fact that the bettered condition of the Chinese people is enabling more people to use such goods at home. This bettered condition also promises to the commercial interests of the United States far more trade with China than they have had, provided they go after it.

GEORGE E. ANDERSON, *Consul*.

HANGCHAU, CHINA, *October 18, 1904.*

FOREIGN TRADE OF FRANCE.

(From United States Consul-General Skinner, Marseille, France.)

French imports increased by 254,887,000 francs (\$49,393,191) from 1902 to 1903, and the exports decreased by 82,327,000 francs (\$15,889,111). Eight months of the year 1904 show a total import trade in France of 2,995,380,000 francs (\$578,108,340), against 3,159,846,000 francs (\$609,850,278) in 1903, and a total export trade of 2,851,719,000 francs (\$550,381,767), against 2,765,976,000 francs (\$533,833,368) in 1903. During this period the amount of duties collected was 269,202,000 francs (\$51,955,986), against 305,543,000 francs (\$58,969,799) in 1903.

In 1903 England, the United States, Germany, Belgium, and Argentina, in the order named, were the foremost nations exporting to France, and England, Belgium, Germany, the United States, and Switzerland the principal nations importing from France. The United States sold to France within \$20,000,000 as much as Great Britain, and bought less than one-quarter as much. Of the goods to the value of

\$50,000,000 which the United States bought in France, silk and woolen goods and Parisian novelties represented about \$30,000,000, constituting a list of articles than which the French people have nothing more profitable to sell. Though our purchases were less in the aggregate than those of some other nations, we were the most desirable customers of the Republic.

Exports from the port of Marseille to the United States fell off in value from \$6,674,141 in the year ended June 30, 1903, to \$4,310,823 in the year ended June 30, 1904. Of this loss the decrease under the head of goatskins amounted to \$1,015,117. Since October 1 exports seem to be picking up, and the current year will probably be an excellent one. In the imports from the United States no great changes are noted. The trade in American salted meat products was practically annihilated over a year ago by a change in the French tariff. Domestic dealers in this and other products affected by the same legislation are actively petitioning for a restoration of the former meat schedule, and are by no means hopeless of success.

The table subjoined shows the value of the exports and imports combined from the important French ports.

Value of total trade of leading French ports, 1901 and 1902.

Port.	1901.	1902.
Marseille.....	\$378, 183, 500	\$414, 834, 200
Havre.....	333, 851, 400	360, 543, 200
Bordeaux.....	112, 113, 700	101, 537, 300
Dunkirk.....	136, 412, 400	136, 682, 600
Rouen.....	48, 423, 700	43, 251, 300
Cette.....	24, 511, 000	22, 388, 000
St. Nazaire.....	23, 989, 900	23, 024, 900
Nantes.....	16, 308, 500	15, 247, 000

ROBERT P. SKINNER, *Consul-General.*

MARSEILLE, FRANCE, *November 5, 1904.*

FRENCH WALNUTS.

(From United States Consul Nason, Grenoble, France.)

Walnuts are the second most important article of export from Grenoble. The harvest of 1903 was above the average and produced about 28,000 bales of 100 kilograms each (6,172,880 pounds) of unshelled nuts and 30,000 to 35,000 cases of 25 kilograms each (1,652,700 to 1,928,150 pounds) of shelled nuts or walnut kernels. A very large part of this crop found its way to the United States, as, indeed, is the case every year. There was an unusual amount of speculation and much fluctuation in prices between the growers of nuts, the nut merchants (middlemen), and the American buyers. The value of the shipments for the year ended June 30, 1904, through this consulate

was \$450,320.58. The nuts were sold in New York at about 12½ cents per pound for the unshelled, this including all costs of transportation and the duty at 3 cents per pound. These figures apply to the so-called "Grenoble walnuts," consisting of "mayettes"—the best table nuts and of the shape that stands on end—and "chabertes," sometimes mixed with the "mayettes," but generally shipped in kernels or meat form.

This year the harvest, by reason of the long summer drought and exceptional heat, is but little above half the average, though the nuts are of excellent quality. This has caused prices to rule somewhat higher, the more so because, owing to continued rains, the California crop is also shortened.

Inquiries being often made as to the extent of the walnut crop in France, with a view to comparison with the crop in California, I have gathered the following approximate estimate:

Production of walnuts in France, 1900 and 1901.

Year.	Kilograms.	Pounds.	Value.
1900.....	72,529,700	159,900,590	\$3,648,616
1901.....	87,699,300	193,343,832	3,827,178

Exports of walnuts from France, 1900 to 1902.

Year.	Kilograms.	Pounds.	Value.
1900.....	17,113,000	37,727,700	\$1,369,000
1901.....	20,849,800	45,965,938	1,668,000
1902.....	11,297,200	24,906,064	903,800

A representative of a large San Francisco house and of the Pacific Commercial Museum came to France this year, in September, when the harvest was practically assured, and made a personal inspection of the trees and nuts, and with consular assistance gathered all desired information upon which to base estimates by the aid of which California dealers are doubtless enabled to compare the native and foreign crops, in size and quality, to forecast the market, and to formulate prices.

C. P. H. NASON, *Consul.*

GRENOBLE, FRANCE, *October 31, 1904.*

PATENT AND TRADE-MARK LAWS OF FRANCE.

(From United States Consul-General Goudy, Paris, France.)

PATENT LAWS.

There has been no new legislation in France regarding patent laws, apart from a decree, dated August 11, 1903, relating to the rules of practice. The so-called *résumé* or summary of the characteristics of

the invention, which has hitherto been optional, now becomes compulsory. The full postal address, which was hitherto optional, will now invariably have to be given. Applicants desiring to secure the advantages of the international convention will now be called upon to give the date of their first prior application abroad. Amendments required under the rules were hitherto admitted only as a provisional measure, as provided by the decrees of September 3, 1901, May 31, 1902, and December 31, 1902. Henceforth the right to amend is definitive, and these three decrees are repealed.

The law of July 5, 1844; amendment law of May 31, 1856; law of May 23, 1868 (protecting inventions in public exhibitions); decrees of October 21, 1858 (extending protection to French colonies), July 5, 1850 (extending protection to Algeria), June 24, 1893 (extending protection to Indo-China); amendment law of April 7, 1902, together with the patent-office circulars of September 6 and 16, 1902, and the decree of August 11, 1903, are in force. (*Le Bulletin Officiel de la Propriété Industrielle et Commerciale* is sent to this consulate-general by the French ministry of commerce—by which it is published—and is forwarded regularly to the Patent Office at Washington on behalf of the French minister.)

Propositions have been made from various sources to modify the patent law of July 5, 1844, which still governs the protection of inventions, but nothing tangible has yet been attained.

TRADE-MARK LAWS.

There are no new laws regarding designs and copyrights. As regards the trade-mark laws, the only new legislation is a decree of February 19, 1903, which renders applicable to Madagascar and its dependencies the laws and decrees which govern trade-marks.

JOHN K. GÓWDY, *Consul-General*.

PARIS, FRANCE, *October 12, 1904.*

CHARTREUSE AND OTHER LIQUEURS.

(*From United States Consul Nason, Grenoble, France.*)

With the closing in the spring of 1903 of the old and far-famed monastery of La Grande Chartreuse and the acquiring of the property by the State, the making and the exporting of the well-known cordial "Chartreuse" to the United States ceased. The monks have now resumed its manufacture at Tarragona,^a in Spain, under the new label, "Liqueur fabriquée à Tarragona par les Pères Chartreux." The original label and trade-mark were appropriated by the French Gov-

^aSee Daily Consular Reports, No. 2120, November 30, 1904.

ernment, and it has recently granted to a leading firm of French distillers the right to use them. They are about to ship to America a liqueur under the name of "La Grande Chartreuse," purporting to be identical with that made by the monks. To the ordinary palate discrimination is difficult. But the monks claim that they alone possess the secret of the genuine article wrapped up in their 300-year-old recipe.

In sharp competition with the original "Chartreuse," there has been made for a number of years, within a few miles of the old monastery, another liqueur known as "La Raphaëlle." Its maker was formerly a "brother" in the monastery, and employed in the manufacture of its cordial, but for some reason he withdrew from the brotherhood. His business has grown to be very large and is extending to other countries. Arrangements have been made for handling it in the United States; some shipments have gone over already. It is put up in the same form as the "Chartreuse;" it is asserted to be the same thing, but is sold at a much lower price.

C. P. H. NASON, *Consul*.

GRENOBLE, FRANCE, *October 31, 1904.*

TRADE METHODS IN FRANCE.

(From United States Consul Nason, Grenoble, France.)

A large house in New York State desiring to make headway in Europe with a valuable patented device has brought this device here, conferred personally with parties, showed its working, and awakened interest, and is now considering offers for its exploitation in France under a royalty or an out-and-out sale of the patent.

This is one of the best means for introducing American improvements and securing new fields for American products and manufactures. The prospectus, the circular, the handbook—especially in French and with the prices in French currency, sent to names and through channels that may be indicated by the consul—have no doubt a certain value in stimulating inquiry as to new things and new methods, but nothing will move the cautious French business man to take hold and push an article so much as personal exhibition of the thing, personal explanations of its advantages, and the personal establishment of an agency to bring it before the public.

C. P. H. NASON, *Consul*.

GRENOBLE, FRANCE, *October 31, 1904.*

FRENCH FINANCIAL CONDITIONS.

(From United States Consul-General Gowdy, Paris, France.)

The striking feature of this year has been the extraordinary cheapness of money, a condition brought about by the issue of \$77,200,000 of Russian 5 per cent treasury bonds in Paris in the spring, a large part of the proceeds having been left on deposit here to meet the coupons on the several issues as they fall due. This has produced a great abundance of money and has sent the rate of discount for bills on the open market as low as 1 to 1½ per cent per annum.

The payment of \$39,758,000 by the United States Government for the Panama Canal has also contributed toward the cheapening of money, besides having an influence on the dollar rate, which stood at the gold point, say about 5.15½ during May and the beginning of June, the period during which the above payment was effected.

There has been no change in the form of money in France. The nickel piece of 25 centimes (5 cents) issued in 1903 was found to cause trouble by being mistaken for a franc piece, and no more will be struck in the same form. The new 25-centime piece in nickel is not entirely round, but contains 22 facets.

The 5-franc piece in gold is becoming more rare, and a small premium is now offered by certain collectors for perfect specimens of these coins.

JOHN K. GOWDY, *Consul-General.*

PARIS, FRANCE, *October 12, 1904.*

NEW BRITISH TOBACCO DUTY.

(From United States Consul Boyle, Liverpool, England.)

Liverpool being the chief port of entry and point of distribution for American tobacco in the United Kingdom, it is natural that there should be much concern here as to the effect, favorable or otherwise, of the new additional duty of 3 pence (6 cents) per pound on "stripped" leaf. The trade in all its branches—importing, manufacturing, and selling, wholesale and retail—has been much unsettled during the past two or three years, and now this new duty has introduced an additional disturbing influence. Opinions vary considerably as to the effect of the new duty in both this country and America. A few days ago the London Times conspicuously published the following:

We have received from an American correspondent a communication in which he explains the effect which the change in the British duty on tobacco has had on the trade in the United States. An arrangement whereby stripped tobacco comes into this country at 3s. 3d. [79 cents] per pound, whereas unstripped comes in at 3s. [73 cents]

per pound, has brought the offal to this country in the shape of the stem. The stem was formerly taken out of the tobacco in the United States and left there. It was the raw material of valuable commercial products, and before the duty was changed he himself had a contract for \$15 a ton for stems to be hauled away from the factory door by the purchaser.

Since the change in the duty the contract has become valueless, as there are no stems to be sold, and the trade in this material has passed to England. The offal is now being ground into powder in Liverpool. From this offal used to be made in the United States (1) germicide powder for sheep washing and for horticultural purposes; (2) a liquid extract of nicotine chemically extracted and shipped to Germany; (3) snuff. The point our correspondent wishes to emphasize is that the importation of the stem into England has created a new industry here, as labor is required to strip the leaf on this side.

The above was widely reprinted in the English press, particularly in this district and other tobacco centers. Some papers have treated the matter from the fiscal standpoint—that is, the claim has been made that the additional duty of 3 pence (6 cents) on “stripped” leaf as against “unstripped” is really the thin edge of a system of discriminating protective duties on articles wholly or in part manufactured, as against the raw material; and the result of this new tobacco duty, as alleged by the American correspondent of the Times, in creating a new industry in this country, is held to be a vindication of the wisdom of the new duty.

With the object of getting at the actual facts of the case, I submitted the Times article to one of the best-known and largest firms in the United Kingdom which imports American leaf tobacco. This firm replied in writing as follows, and it will be observed that it does not agree altogether with the American correspondent of the Times, at least so far as the present situation is concerned:

There is no new industry. The making of germicide powders is a very old industry, and whether the manufacturers will get their tobacco offal any cheaper in consequence of increased stemming in this country remains to be seen. No increased stemming to any extent has yet taken place, nor will it until the stock of strips in this country is exhausted. Manufacturers of germicide powders in America who have been getting tobacco stems, which they call “the raw material of valuable commercial products,” may well cry out about the decrease in the supply of stems, in consequence of shippers in Virginia and the Carolinas not making strips for sale in this country out of the crop now being sold, for hitherto stems have been made in such quantities that they have had no value, as indicated by the price, \$15 per ton.

People will not buy leaf tobacco at from 6 cents to 25 cents per pound to pull the stems to sell at one-third of a cent per pound to makers of germicide powders.

In the West, Kentucky, Clarksville, etc., the scarcity of stems can not yet have been felt, as the strips were made out of the 1903 crop before the duty was raised, and the 1904 crop has not yet been marketed. No doubt the holders of stems would not continue to give them away,

when they anticipated no stems being made. Stems being of no value, the cost of the tobacco and labor in stemming was added to the strips, which made strips so much dearer. If strips can be made in this country, with ample drawback for duty on the stems returned into bond, and these stems be of value for any purpose, then the strips made in this country will be relatively cheaper than those made in America. If the scarcity of stems in America should compel the manufacturers of germicide powder to pay the first cost of the stems, then American stemmers would be able to send strips here at a price that would enable our manufacturers to buy American-made strips and pay the extra 6 cents duty.

The following revised instructions as to the duties payable upon imported tobacco have just been issued by the British commissioners of customs:

(1) Subject to the exception made in respect of "butting," as stated hereafter, all leaf tobacco imported, the leaf of which is not complete by reason of the removal of the stalk or midrib or of some portion thereof, is to be deemed to be stripped tobacco, and the higher rate of duty is to be levied accordingly.

(2) Leaf tobacco which has been "butted" abroad is to be admitted at the lower rate of duty as unstripped, provided the officers are satisfied that the portion of the leaf removed in the operation of "butting" does not exceed one-tenth of the estimated length of the entire leaf, measured from the tip to the point where the midrib is assumed to have joined the main stem of the plant.

(4) The board authorize officers concerned to allow "butting" operations to be performed on leaf tobacco in bond.

JAMES BOYLE, *Consul*.

LIVERPOOL, ENGLAND, *November 15, 1904.*

COMMERCE OF TRIESTE IN 1903.

(From United States Consul Hossfeld, Trieste, Austria.)

TOTAL TRADE.

The aggregate value of the commerce of Trieste in 1903 shows an increase of 62,445,361 crowns (\$12,676,408) over the value in 1902. The total value of imports in 1903 was 773,220,635 crowns (\$156,963,789), against 751,278,766 crowns (\$152,509,589) in 1902, while the exports rose in value from 702,509,711 crowns (\$142,609,471) to 743,013,203 crowns (\$160,831,680). No declaration of value is required on the entry of goods at the Austrian custom-houses, so that where values are given in this report it should be understood that they are based upon estimates by the Trieste Chamber of Commerce.

The principal items of import and export are shown in the following table:

Principal imports and exports of Trieste, 1903.

Articles.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Quintals.</i>		<i>Quintals.</i>	
Alcohol and distilled liquors	123, 198	\$1, 140, 423	121, 625	\$1, 817, 848
Animals (cattle)		1, 423, 209		
Clothing and millinery	11, 065	2, 695, 434	13, 629	3, 320, 024
Coal and coke	4, 218, 092	1, 891, 432	894, 606	415, 029
Coffee	602, 167	9, 584, 712	588, 974	9, 325, 814
Corn	511, 724	1, 568, 843	181, 101	503, 425
Cotton, raw	690, 417	14, 015, 465	659, 065	13, 388, 817
Drugs	41, 093	1, 114, 045	43, 176	1, 167, 781
Flour	455, 782	2, 201, 969	229, 997	1, 111, 207
Fruit	1, 432, 913	6, 745, 241	1, 395, 586	6, 540, 046
Glassware, etc	114, 863	1, 916, 319	96, 661	1, 593, 500
Gold and gold coin				7, 532, 599
Hardware	27, 145	3, 084, 433	22, 328	2, 642, 299
Iron and ironware	516, 343	4, 066, 621	833, 143	3, 504, 104
Jute	206, 008	1, 308, 994	214, 502	1, 349, 861
Leather goods	4, 282	1, 607, 042	5, 126	1, 189, 742
Metals and metal ware	147, 187	4, 513, 749	142, 331	4, 411, 172
Oil, cotton, sesame, etc	201, 034	2, 576, 502	144, 830	1, 994, 914
Oil, olive	86, 414	1, 461, 242	160, 548	2, 900, 621
Paper, pasteboard, etc.	464, 791	3, 819, 152	424, 402	3, 841, 018
Rice	832, 780	3, 479, 624	723, 301	5, 492, 268
Seeds, divers	375, 908	2, 239, 541	52, 347	454, 448
Silver and silver coin			875	1, 158, 964
Skins, raw and tanned	162, 753	6, 110, 893	170, 136	6, 375, 516
Sugar	1, 263, 940	6, 096, 595	1, 263, 651	6, 066, 086
Tea	14, 011	1, 535, 886	12, 255	1, 343, 393
Textile fabrics and yarns	247, 821	24, 315, 393	218, 121	20, 803, 570
Tobacco, etc	145, 155	9, 029, 115	133, 295	6, 383, 528
Wine	799, 849	5, 080, 405	711, 620	4, 522, 534
Wood	2, 114, 716	3, 902, 497	2, 047, 449	3, 810, 745
Wooden ware	192, 728	1, 837, 544	125, 465	1, 381, 592
Wool, raw	28, 643	1, 075, 688	25, 253	948, 376

TRADE WITH UNITED STATES.

The total value of direct imports at Trieste from the United States was 31,638,377 crowns (\$6,422,590), or 4,627,611 crowns (\$939,405) more than in 1902. This gain is participated in by a large number of commodities and is largely if not entirely due to the improved steamship communication between this port and New York. The imports of the first six months of the present year also show a large increase, and the present indications are that the imports of 1904 will exceed those of 1903 by fully 25 per cent.

The imports of American cotton-seed oil rose from 87,512 quintals (48,620 barrels) in 1902 to 142,079 quintals (78,930 barrels) in 1903. Our trade also shows a large increase in lumber, tobacco, coffee, paraffin, lard, and bacon. On the other hand, the importation of American coal has entirely ceased. This inability of our coal to compete at present with the British product at Trieste is owing to the abnormally low freight rates of English colliers, that always find profitable return cargoes in the grain ports of the Black Sea.

The value of the exports from Trieste to the United States increased from \$1,282,495 in 1902 to \$1,479,743 in 1903. Articles showing an increase are drugs, iron, rice, and silk, and those showing a decrease beans, cuttle-fish bones, dried fruit, gum, and leaf tobacco.

FREDERICK W. HOSSFELD, *Consul.*

TRIESTE, AUSTRIA, *October 31, 1904.*

NOTES.

Villamizar Port Closed.—The minister of finance and public credit of Venezuela has recently issued an order closing the port of Villamizar. Only within the last few months has communication between Colombia and Venezuela been reopened, and all our foreign merchants have much merchandise ready to be sent to Colombia. Commerce will be greatly damaged. To avoid these interruptions in the future, I understand that a large foreign house here has agreed with the Government of Colombia to send all goods for the eastern part of that country by way of Magdalena River. Colombia in return allows a rebate of 30 per cent from the customs duty. Both the commerce and the revenues of Maracaibo will be damaged by this arrangement.—*E. N. Plumacher, Consul, Maracaibo, Venezuela, November 3, 1904.*

Postage Rates in France.—There has been no change in the rate of postage, the charge still being 3 cents on 15 grams (slightly over one-half ounce) for interior letters, and 5 cents for the same weight for letters to other countries of the Postal Union. Newspapers pay 1 cent on 50 grams (1.12 ounces). Registered papers can be sent for 2 centimes (interior). The demand for a 2-cent interior postage is being discussed, but the date of its adoption is not mentioned.—*John K. Gowdy, Consul-General, Paris, France, October 12, 1904.*

Public Land Law of Venezuela.—United States Consul Plumacher has forwarded from Maracaibo, under date of October 20, 1904, a translation of the new law of waste or public lands of Venezuela, and the same is now on file in the Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor, where it may be consulted by parties interested.

Venezuelan Coal.—United States Consul Plumacher, at Maracaibo, Venezuela, under date of November 3, 1904, has forwarded a copy of a decree and translation declaring that in future the Government of Venezuela will exploit the coal deposits of that Republic.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

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DECEMBER 24, 1904

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COMMERCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN HONDURAS.

(From United States Consul Wood, Ceiba, Honduras.)

The fiscal year ending June 30, 1904, was a prosperous one for this country, and this consular district in particular.

The great number of inquiries in regard to Honduras now being received at this consulate plainly show that many people in the United States are taking a keen interest in this country. It could hardly be otherwise. As the commercial development of Mexico becomes more complete the Central American republics afford a natural and easy outlet for American capital.

The greatest drawback to the commercial development of Honduras and other Central American States has been the frequent occurrence of revolutions, but this danger has been exaggerated and not well understood in the United States. Foreigners are not often molested here in times of domestic disturbances, and it is not at all likely that in the future any industry conducted by foreign enterprise or capital will be seriously troubled. About the only annoyance that could happen to foreign capitalists would be the impressment of their laborers to act as soldiers for the time being. In fact, in my opinion, capital invested in Honduras is as safe as in any other country, and subject only to those risks which attend business ventures all over the world.

Another of the great hindrances to the proper development of Honduras has been the lack of suitable transportation facilities. To partly remedy this defect some work has been done in the mountain trails leading to the interior and a great many concessions have been granted for the construction of narrow-gauge railways. The work on three of these railroads or tramways is now being actively pushed in this district and two of them are nearly completed. The roads are intended mostly for transporting bananas from the plantations to the points of shipment. The construction of these short roads marks an important event in the progress of the country, for it will be easy to extend them until the whole coast is provided with ample transportation. All the materials used in their construction, even the ties, have been imported from the United States. Concessions for the improvement of waterways have been granted, but little work on them has been done so far.

Honduras is under a progressive administration, which is doing everything possible for the advancement and welfare of the country. Legitimate business enterprises are receiving much encouragement. The

political horizon is without a cloud. Capital is urgently needed for enterprises so numerous that they can not be mentioned, but in view of the disastrous failures familiar to everybody who has passed any length of time in the Tropics, would-be investors can not be too strongly urged to use great care how they place their money.

HOW AMERICAN TRADE WITH HONDURAS CAN BE INCREASED.

American goods are placed in Honduras under far more favorable circumstances than those of any other country. Almost the entire shipping of the country is to and from the United States. Sixty per cent of the imports now come from the United States, but there are many opportunities for greater commerce. Sending competent representatives is the best way to gain trade in foreign countries. American exporters should make a careful study of foreign countries and their commerce, country by country and article by article. German and English exporters are, as a rule, more painstaking than Americans, and so win a share of the trade even where American goods are placed at an advantage.

DEAN R. WOOD, *Consul.*

CEIBA, HONDURAS, *October 30, 1904.*

COTTON GROWING ABROAD.

(*From United States Consul-General Evans, London, England.*)

The inclosed article on cotton growing in other lands than America and British colonies appeared in the London Globe of September 30 last:

England is not moving alone toward the extension of the world's cotton supply. The schemes of the British Empire Cotton-Growing Association, which has now received a royal charter, are of much greater dimensions than any others now before the world, and the chief augmentation of future cotton crops will come from the British dominions. But if the present attempts to promote international action are carried out, and there is a general concentration on cotton growing in suitable localities, the foreign sources of supply are worthy to be taken into consideration. France, for instance, has wide colonial regions suitable for the crop, and in the valley of the Upper Niger there has been a considerable output of cotton. Algeria, too, has proved its suitability by past evidence. During the cotton famine following the outbreak of the American civil war an abundant crop of cotton was grown there, and some French manufacturers believe that the industry might now be revived. At that time 30,000 acres of cotton were cultivated, and if at the present time 35,000 acres could be restored to such cultivation France would enjoy an annual native crop of 10,500,000 kilograms (23,148,535 pounds) of cotton. Cambodia, too, produces a considerable quantity of cotton, and the cultivation is being extended.

In Spain a bill to encourage cotton growing has been introduced in the Cortes, the plan being to extend the crop by offering prizes and other inducements to those who raise it. Italy has a great and growing cotton industry, employing 2,700,000 spindles and 171,000 work people. It used 340,000,000 pounds of cotton in 1903, as compared with 270,000,000 pounds in 1900. In 1882 the value of the product of the industry was £5,800,000 (\$28,225,700); in 1903 it had grown to £13,500,000 (\$65,697,750). Naturally, such a market would welcome native cotton, and it is believed that the crop might be cultivated profitably in Italy. At any rate, the cotton which was grown there up to 1873 was useful, though not of very high quality, and a better staple might now be obtained.

Germany has been very active in this matter, and has in some respects gone ahead of England. It offers many incentives to colonists to devote themselves to cotton growing. A price has been offered in advance for crops raised and premiums have been given for the best crops. The colonial committee also furnished gins and bale presses free of charge, and the German Steamship Line of Hamburg offered free transport. The result was that the Saxon Spinners Union, which had previously had cotton from German West Africa, received in 1902 the first consignment from German East Africa, and there was the prospect of supply from Togo, Saadani, Usambara, and Pongene. Germany also sent its experts to the cotton fields in the Southern States to study cultivation, and established an office at Dar-es-Salaam to organize all cotton schemes and see them properly carried out. Railway development for transport from the inner lands to the points of shipment has also been taken in hand.

This systematic work has had the best results. The Togoland cotton has shown a marked improvement, in consequence of the teaching which has been imparted, and it was estimated that the crop there in the current year would reach 200,000 pounds. The area sown has been greatly extended and next year's crop is expected to yield 1,000 bales of 500 pounds each. The Reichstag has voted the funds necessary to construct a railway for transport from Lome to Palime. In German East Africa there are 2,000 hectares (4,942 acres) under cotton, but when the Nyassa Railway is completed it will be possible to cultivate the Kilwa district, where there are 100,000 hectares (247,104 acres) of good cotton-growing land. To obtain the advantages of cheap transport the banks of the Rufidiji River are being cultivated and the area will soon extend over 150 kilometers (93.2 miles), for which distance the river is navigable. Germany is fully alive to the necessity for cheap transport, and is aware that nothing would tend to develop cotton-growing so much as the opening up of light railway lines.

The Dutch have also given attention to this important question, as it affects their East Indian colonies. Two varieties of cotton have long been cultivated in Java and much has been done to develop the trade. In 1902 the cotton export of the Dutch East Indies amounted to about 5,300 tons, half of which was of Javanese growth. The administration of the Residency of Samarang, the chief center of the cotton cultivation, is promoting and protecting the interests of the planters, and the Government has provided a sum of money to be advanced as loans and premiums.

The Regent of Demak has studied the question closely, and has succeeded in producing a staple which sells for 6 pence (12 cents) a pound in Holland. Even in Palestine there is likely to be a revival of cotton growing. Up to 1866 cotton was grown there on a considerable scale on the belt from Gaza to Tyre, 100 miles long and 5 to 20 miles broad. The export from Palestine during the war averaged 20,000 bales, and though the fall in prices led to the abandonment of the industry there is no reason why at fair prices it should not be reestablished. The Palestine cotton is inferior to that of Egypt, being shorter; but it is indigenous to the soil and flourishes, whereas cotton from foreign seed can only be grown successfully with expensive irrigation works. Still, even the inferior native cotton is of a useful kind, and cotton from the Holy Land may be obtained once more.

Finally, there are countries still farther away where, if difficulties can be overcome, cotton should be a staple crop. Paraguay is admirably fitted for cotton growing and the plant has been cultivated there for years, though never exported. But samples sent to this country have been favorably received, and should be able to compete with American cotton. The chief difficulty in the way of the crop proceeds from the scarcity of labor. The natives are not industrious, and so long as their necessities are provided for they will not work even for higher wages. Guatemala is another cotton region which may yet be a source of supply to commerce. Indeed, there is no scarcity of cotton lands; all that is needed is their development, and Great Britain on this point seems to have induced many to follow her example.

H. CLAY EVANS, *Consul-General.*

LONDON, ENGLAND, *November 11, 1904.*

COTTON GROWING IN AUSTRALIA.

(From United States Consul-General Bray, Melbourne, Australia.)

At the recent show of the Royal Agricultural Society of Victoria, at Melbourne, were exhibited two new varieties of cotton reported to be of exceptional quality, grown by Doctor Thomatis, at Cairns, in the State of Queensland. Doctor Thomatis stated that one variety, named Caravonica I, gave the large yield of 1,200 pounds of ginned cotton per acre, and that it has been pronounced by American, English, and Continental experts to be of the value of 10d. (20 cents) per pound and should be classed as a wool cotton. The other variety, named Caravonica II, the yield of which is not stated, is a silky cotton valued at 1s. (24 cents) per pound.

Caravonica I in yield and value is stated to be far in advance of all other cottons, and applications for seed have been made from many countries. It is a tree cotton and is cultivated like an orchard tree. It is planted 7 feet by 7 feet apart and when 6 months old attains a height of 7 feet and bears a small crop the first season. Slight pruning is necessary each year to keep the tree robust and of a convenient size for working. From 300 to 500 bolls are said to be yielded by a

single tree in a season; and it is claimed that 70 of these bolls will make from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ pounds of clean lint.

Much interest is being evinced in Australia in the possibility of successfully growing cotton in the northern portion of the continent. This part of Australia is stated by experts to be eminently adapted for the purpose, having distinct rainy and dry seasons. The governments of the States of South Australia and Queensland intend to offer every facility for cotton growers to secure land in the northern territory of those States and in other ways to encourage the industry.

An association has been formed in Manchester, England, to encourage the cultivation of cotton in the British Empire. Agents of this association are now in Australia and in Fiji, are in communication with the governments of the States in which the climate and soil are adapted to the industry, and are otherwise arousing interest in the project.

JOHN P. BRAY, *Consul-General*.

MELBOURNE, AUSTRALIA, *October 15, 1904.*

CANADIAN RAILWAYS.

(From the *Halifax Evening Mail*, forwarded by *United States Vice-Consul-General George Hill*, *Halifax Nova Scotia*.)

On the 30th of June, 1903, Canada had 18,988 miles of railway in operation and 19,078 miles of track laid. The miles by Provinces are as follows: Ontario, 7,142; Quebec, 3,492; New Brunswick, 1,445; Nova Scotia, 1,050; Prince Edward Island, 200; Northwest Territories and Yukon, 2,094; Manitoba, 2,225; British Columbia, 1,421. In 1867, at the time of confederation, the total mileage of the country was only 2,087.

Canada has 167 steam railways. Twenty-five of these have been amalgamated and form the Grand Trunk Railway system. The remaining 112 have more or less consolidated. Three of these are bridge companies, with $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles of rail, and one is a tunnel company, with $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles of rail. The mileage (rails laid) of the several organizations is: Canadian Pacific, 7,437; Grand Trunk, 3,154.48; Intercolonial and Prince Edward Island, 1,519.26; other railways, 6,959.89; bridge and tunnel, 6.96. The number of miles laid with steel rails was 18,976.

The gauges of railways in Canada are as follows: British Yukon, 90.32 miles, 3 feet gauge; Carillon and Grenville, 13 miles, 5 feet 6 inches gauge; Kaslo and Slocan, 31.80 miles, 3 feet gauge; Klondike Mines, 2 miles, 3 feet gauge; Prince Edward Island, 209 miles, 3 feet 6 inches gauge; Lenora and Mount Sicker, 11.50 miles, 3 feet gauge; Louis and Richibucto, 7 miles, 3 feet gauge; other railways, 18,712.97 miles, 4 feet $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches gauge.

The Dominion government has contributed at the rate of \$9,313 per mile constructed; the provincial governments at the rate of \$1,720 per total mileage constructed, and the municipalities at the rate of \$868 per mile on total mileage.

¶ The amount of capital invested in Canadian railways June 30, 1903, was \$1,146,550,769. Governments have contributed as follows: Dominion, \$177,677,689; Ontario, \$8,418,578; Quebec, \$16,445,242; New Brunswick, \$4,542,940; Nova Scotia, \$2,090,091; Manitoba, \$1,275,378; British Columbia, \$37,500. Municipalities had contributed, up to June 30, 1903, \$16,551,044.

The train mileage made on Canadian roads in the year ending June 30, 1903, was 60,382,920. The earnings per mile for the same period were \$5.059, the expenses \$3.554. The net income of Canadian railways for the year ending June 30, 1903, was \$28,583,004.

In the year ending June 30, 1903, the Canadian railways carried 22,148,742 passengers and 47,373,417 tons of freight, including 1,926,070 tons of flour, 5,761,792 tons of grain, 1,345,203 tons of live stock, 6,041,976 tons of lumber of all kinds, 2,083,297 tons of firewood, 7,266,388 tons of manufactured goods, and 22,958,691 tons of all other goods. In the same year 420 persons were killed and 1,453 injured. Of the killed, 53 were employees, 186 were passengers, while 187 are designated as "others." Of the injured, 258 were passengers, 944 employees, and 251 "others."

GREEK WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

(From United States Consul McGinley, Athens, Greece.)

During the last year a semiofficial chart of the official weights and measures of Greece was published, and from it I have compiled the following tables, which give the Greek measures and American equivalents. An examination of these tables shows that some confusion exists in these weights and measures, there being four "piks," two "stremmas," two "kilons," two "dactylos," and three cloth measures.

The "royal pik" is the length of the French meter, 39.37 inches; the "mason's pik" is a little more than 29.52 inches; the "endeje," or small commercial pik, is slightly over 25.51 inches; and the "bratzo," or large commercial pik, is over 26.33 inches. The mason's pik is used in measuring mason work, and the last-named two piks for measuring cloth. The third cloth measure is the "yard," which lacks a fraction of an inch of the length of the American yard. It is used mostly in the Ionian Islands.

The stremma is a square measure, and the two stremmas in use are the "royal," which equals a little more than 39.53 square rods, and the "old," which equals a little more than 50.21 square rods. Why the old stremma is retained in use I have not learned. There are 4.047 royal stremmas in one American acre.

The two "kilons" are measures of capacity, the "royal" containing over 3.53 cubic feet and the "old kilon" 1.171 cubic feet. Another measure of capacity is the "hekatoliton," which is exactly the size of the royal kilon.

The trades use the metric system principally, but there are exceptions, as the use of the pik and yard by tailors in measuring cloth.

Timber and boards are measured by metric, English, and Venetian measures.

The unit of weight is the oka, which equals 2.82185 pounds. Up to the time the chart above mentioned was issued the Greek oka was variously stated to be equal to 2.8518 pounds, 2.84 pounds, and 2.6998 pounds, but the official measures printed on this chart show that the oka is 2.82185 pounds in weight. I have been informed that in the Ionian Islands 2.6998 pounds is considered an oka.

For heavy weights the royal kilon, commonly called a "kilo," and equaling 75 okas, or 211.6987 pounds, and the "tonos" (ton), equaling 2,204.6 pounds, are used. Wine, beer, liquors, oil, milk, vinegar, sirups, and other liquids are sold by the oka, on the mainland of Greece, but in the Ionian Islands the "secchio," 3 gallons, the "pagliazza," 1.99 gallons, and the "barile," 17.626 gallons, are said to be still in use.

Linear measures.

Denominations and values.	American equivalents.
10 grammis or suchillimeters=1 dactylos.....	0.3937 inch.
10 dactyli or subhekatoliters=1 palami.....	3.937 inches.
10 palamae or subdeciliters=1 royal pik.....	39.37 inches.
1,000 royal piks or meters=1 stadion.....	3,280 feet 10 inches.
10 stadia or chillometers=1 schoinis or myriameter.....	32,808 feet 4 inches.
1 mason's pik=0.75 royal pik.....	29.5275 inches.
1 endeje or small commercial pik=0.648 royal pik.....	25.51176 inches.
1 roupion of an endeje=0.081 royal pik.....	3.18897 inches.
1 bratzo or large commercial pik=0.669 royal pik.....	26.33853 inches.
1 roupion of a bratzo=0.083625 royal pik.....	3.29235 inches.
1 yard=0.91438 royal pik.....	35.99914 inches.
1 pouss=0.30479 royal pik.....	11.9997 inches.
1 dactylos=0.02539 royal pik.....	0.9996 inch.

Square measures.

Denominations and values.	American equivalents.
100 square grammas=1 square dactylos.....	0.154999 square inch.
100 square dactyli=1 square palami.....	15.49995 square inches.
100 square palamae=1 square royal pik.....	10.7638 square feet.
1,000 square royal piks=1 square royal stremma.....	39.5367 square rods.
1.27 square royal stremmas=1 square old stremma.....	50.2116 square rods.
0.5625 square royal pik=1 square mason's pik.....	6.0545 square feet.
4.047 square royal stremmas, or 3.1868 square old stremmas.....	1 acre.

Cubic measures.

Denominations and values.	American equivalents.	
	Dry.	Liquid.
10 cubes=1 mystron.....	0.061 cubic inch.	0.0845 gill.
10 mystra=1 kotyli.....	0.6102 cubic inch.	0.845 gill.
10 kotylas=1 litra=1 cubic palami.....	62.026 cubic inches.	1.056 quarts.
1,000 cubic grammas=1 dactylos.....	1.816 pints.	0.0845 gill.
1,000 cubic dactyli=1 cubic palami.....	0.061 cubic inch.	1.056 quarts.
1,000 cubic palamae=1 cubic royal pik.....	1.816 pints.	246.17 gallons.
1 cubic royal pik=1 tonos (ton).....	1.308 cubic yards.	
1 cubic mason's pik=0.421 cubic royal pik.....	2.204.6 pounds.	
	14.868 cubic feet	109.215 gallons.
	(11.945 bushels).	
100 litras=1 cubic royal kilon.....	2.8375 bushels.	26.417 gallons.
10 cubic royal kilons=1 cubic royal pik (10 hekatolitra) ..	28.375 bushels.	4.128 hogsheds.
1 cubic old kilon=0.3316 cubic royal kilon.....	1.171 cubic feet.	8.750 gallons.
1.383 cubic litras=1 cubic oka.....	2.421 pints.	1.408 quarts.

Weights.

Denominations and values.	American equivalents.
10 subchillogrammons=1 kokkon	0.154 grain.
10 kokkos=1 obolos.....	1.543 grains.
10 obolos=1 grammon.....	15.432 grains.
1,000 grammas=1 chillogrammon.....	2.2046 pounds.
1,000 chillograms=1 tonce (ton).....	2.2046 pounds.
1,280 grammas=1 oka.....	2.82185 pounds.
400 drammas=1 oka.....	2.82185 pounds.
150 drammas=1 Venetian litra.....	1.05619 pounds.
1 Venetian litra=0.375 oka.....	1.05619 pounds.
1 royal kilon=75 okas.....	211.6337 pounds.
1 old kilon=24.375 okas.....	70.1985 pounds.

* One grammon=1 cubic dactylos of water at a maximum density.

In addition to the foregoing, a number of unofficial weights and measures are in use in the Kingdom, including the scale used by the pharmacists. Below are given these unofficial weights and measures, arranged under two heads—pharmaceutical weights and miscellaneous weights and measures, most of the latter being Venetian and in use in the Ionian Islands only.

Unofficial weights and measures in use in Greece.

Denominations and values.	American equivalents.
PHARMACEUTICAL WEIGHTS.	
1 granum=0.0625 gram.....	0.9645 grain.
1 grammo=1.25 grams.....	19.29 grains.
60 grams=1 drachmna (3.75 grams).....	57.87 grains.
3 grammi=1 drachmna (3.75 grams).....	2.8735 scruples.
8 drachmn=1 uncia (30 grams).....	7.716 drams.
12 uncias=1 libra (360 grams)....*	11.574 ounces.
MISCELLANEOUS WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.	
Libra:	
Grossa.....	1 pound.
Sotile.....	0.8023 pound.
Mina.....	2.2024 pounds.
Talento.....	100 pounds.
Talanton.....	330.607 pounds.
Secchio.....	3 gallons.
Pagliazza (an oil measure used in Cephalonia).....	1.9902 gallons.

DANIEL E. MCGINLEY, *Consul.*

ATHENS, GREECE, *October 27, 1904.*

FRENCH SHIPPING IN 1903.

(From United States Consul-General Skinner, Marseille, France.)

The French merchant marine continues to suffer acutely from an apparently insuperable difficulty—lack of outgoing freight. In Marseille, for example, decidedly the most important French port, against 4,666,198 tons of goods imported during 1903 but 2,170,212 tons were exported. Added to this vital complaint of shipowners is the increased cost of operating French ships compared with those of other nations,

and, by no means least of all, troubles with labor. During three months of 1904 the Marseille fleet lay idle in the port while labor troubles were being settled, and during this long period foreign ships were regularly transacting their accustomed business.

The following table exhibits the general statistics of French shipping, excluding the coasting trade:

Entrances and clearances at French ports in 1902 and 1903.

		French ships.		Foreign ships.	
		All France.	Marseille.	All France.	Marseille.
Entered:					
Number of ships.....	(1902 ..	7,581	5,807	17,326	2,508
	1903 ..	7,611	5,909	17,681	2,763
Tonnage.....	(1902 ..	4,746,300	3,250,209	13,622,562	3,301,518
	1903 ..	4,814,849	3,465,893	14,449,875	3,795,424
Cleared:					
Number of ships.....	(1902 ..	7,566	5,824	13,459	2,517
	1903 ..	7,559	5,927	13,887	2,753
Tonnage.....	(1902 ..	4,528,542	3,232,540	9,195,921	3,307,472
	1903 ..	4,603,494	3,473,240	9,716,619	3,778,173

The statistics of the port of Marseille continue to demonstrate the increasing sea power of the smaller maritime nations operating cheaper ships with cheaper men than either Great Britain or France. While the amount of merchandise landed and shipped from Marseille from 1900 to 1903, inclusive, increased by 936,335 tons, French ships benefited by only 163,252 tons of increase and British ships by only 89,726 tons. During the same interval the freight going out and coming in on ships of other foreign nations increased by 683,357 tons. Three Mediterranean nations show increases in the last three years greater or almost as great as those of Great Britain or France, namely: Italy, 183,000 tons; Greece, 199,208 tons, and Spain, 142,318 tons. The increasingly profitable business of these smaller maritime nations per ton of shipping employed is even more striking, as this table shows:

Tonnage of ships of the leading nations entering and leaving Marseille, and freight carried by them.

Country.	Freight landed or embarked.	Tonnage of ships.
	<i>Tons.</i>	
France.....	3,274,444	6,939,133
Great Britain.....	1,199,274	3,700,456
Italy.....	584,866	883,644
Greece.....	494,996	476,606
Spain.....	377,753	666,325

ROBERT P. SKINNER, *Consul-General.*

MARSEILLE, FRANCE, *November 5, 1904.*

WORKINGMEN'S GARDENS.

(From United States Consul Atwell, Roubaix, France.)

An international congress was held in Paris in the autumn of 1903 to discuss the best means to maintain and extend the work of allotting plats of ground to workmen for the purpose of cultivation. This congress was attended by French philanthropists prominent in politics as well as by dignitaries of the church. Germany, Holland, and Belgium were also represented.

The work is not a new one, but it has been considerably extended during the past year. The evil of intemperance has so undermined the health and usefulness of workmen that a means is sought of interesting them in such healthful employment outside of mill hours as shall bring them increased comfort and attach them to the soil which they cultivate.

Many employers in this district have made generous gifts of land to be allotted to deserving workmen, and at the Arras Exposition, just closed, a first prize was awarded to the "exposition of gardens for workingmen." This exposition represented only the gardens in the north of France, including those in the Department of the North, in which the consulate of Roubaix is situated, the Pas de Calais, the Aisne, Somme, and Oise. The Department of the North and the Pas de Calais were best represented.

The Abbé Lemire, of Paris, president of the Ligue du Coin de Terre et du Foyer, has photographs of this interesting exhibit and statistics concerning it. They are to serve at the Liege Exposition, during the coming year, to spread the knowledge of this philanthropic work.

Counselor Badefeldt, of Berlin, addressed the congress of 1903 in the name of the German Red Cross Association, and stated that the photographs of workingmen's gardens exhibited by the Abbé Lemire at the Paris Exposition had suggested to Germans the feasibility of a similar philanthropic work.

According to reports made in October, 1903, there existed at that date 600 gardens in Belgium in which plats had been allotted to 3,000 persons. France had created 6,137 gardens, which had provided assistance to 43,000 persons. These gardens were provided either by charitable societies or by groups of philanthropists associated for that purpose.

The congress of 1903 discussed whether the laborer should derive full profit from the land cultivated or pay rent for his cottage, reserving to himself the surplus. French delegates leaned toward the adoption of the full charity basis, while the Germans inclined to view the matter strictly from the point of social preservation, and thought it wiser to demand a small return for the grounds allotted.

In order that the work may thrive in cities where the majority of operatives have never handled a spade, it is now thought necessary to encourage a taste for cultivating the soil in children by creating school gardens. It is suggested that on holidays, which are so often ill employed, scholars shall accompany their tutors to these gardens and there learn to use garden implements and acquire a taste for gardening. Prizes judiciously awarded would soon furnish the stimulus necessary to form the useful worker. The school garden has not yet taken form, but it is to be hoped that it may become the adjunct of the older work known as the workingmen's garden.

It is but just to say that the first person to put the idea of a workingman's garden into practice was Mme. Hervieu, of Sedan. Since that time she has had many coadjutors, as the work commends itself not only as philanthropic, but as one of social conservation.

W. P. ATWELL, *Consul*.

ROUBAIX, FRANCE, *November 16, 1904.*

SEED OILS AND OIL SEEDS IN MARSEILLE.

(*From United States Consul-General Skinner, Marseille, France.*)

Three large new oil-manufacturing plants have been built during the past year to handle the increasingly heavy arrivals of oleaginous seeds of various kinds. The import of this material has been so great as to prevent serious competition by American cotton-seed oil, which finds more remunerative markets elsewhere. In 1903 Marseille received 494,440 tons of oil-making material, exclusive of olives, and the local manufacture of seed oil amounted to 198,870 tons during the year. The imports of oil-making material during the ten months ended October 28, 1904, amounted to 375,275 tons, a decrease of 47,819 tons from the imports in the same period of 1903. The imports in 1903 and 1904, in detail, were as follows:

Imports of oleaginous seeds into Marseille, January to October, 1903 and 1904.

Kinds.	1903.	1904.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Sesame seed	110,946	80,437
Shelled arachides (peanuts)	77,437	98,892
Unshelled arachides (peanuts)	88,792	72,765
Linseed	14,420	13,173
Rape seed and ravisson	2,628	1,982
Poppy seed	3,150	4,779
Castor seed	16,473	12,599
Cotton seed	9,232	7,420
Copra	94,077	68,890
Palm kernels	4,864	7,158
Mowrah, Illipi nuts, etc	1,077	7,700
Total	428,094	375,275

The tendency all along the line at this time is to hold steady for higher prices. The crop of sesame seed in India appears to be one-quarter short this year, and no definite news is yet at hand in regard to peanuts. There may be, in consequence, a chance for American comestible oils to enter the Marseille market in greater quantities during the next twelve months than heretofore.

The imports of cotton-seed oil from various sources during the first ten months have been as follows:

Imports of cotton-seed oil into Marseille, first ten months of 1903 and 1904.

Whence imported.	1903.	1904.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
United States	9,041	11,288
Great Britain	845	1,264
Other sources	231	271
Total	10,117	12,818

Exports of Marseille oils to the United States have been heavier this year than usual, the declared value of such exports during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1904, having been as follows:

Exports of oils from Marseille to the United States, year ended June 30, 1904.

Oils.	Value.	Oils.	Value.
Almond	\$150.54	Poppy	\$158.48
Castor	3,322.01	Peanut, edible	974.26
Copra	14,574.20	Peanut, manufacturing	55,910.65
Cotton-seed	625.80	Sesame	41,276.71
Essential	2,264.65	Various, including medicinal	1,710.17
Olive, edible	248,882.28		
Olive, for manufacturing	112,464.86	Total	477,309.51

ROBERT P. SKINNER, *Consul-General.*

MARSEILLE, FRANCE, *November 5, 1904.*

COPRA IN SPAIN.

(From United States Vice-Consul-General Rider, Barcelona, Spain.)

During recent years the cost of copra has been rather above the average, and this fact has militated against its importation into Spain. If the price were to drop again to between \$65 and \$75, at which copra was obtainable eight or ten years ago, the consumption in this country would probably increase by 30 per cent. The higher the cost of copra the smaller is the consumption of the oil in Spain, as it is more advantageous to use olive oil for the manufacture of soap than an expensive copra oil.

The average annual imports of copra are 10,000 to 12,000 tons at Barcelona and 18,000 to 20,000 tons in the whole of Spain. These direct shipments come chiefly from the Straits Settlements, Philippine

Islands, and Celebes, though copra from other places is occasionally bought. The usual conditions of sale are cost, freight, and insurance to Barcelona, quality "fair merchantable, not guaranteed sun-dried." Sun-dried copra is seldom bought here, the proportion not exceeding 5 per cent of the entire imports. In paying, the seller draws a ninety-day sight bill on the buyer's London bankers for 90 per cent of the value of the cargo, the bankers accept the draft against delivery of the bill of lading, and the balance is remitted by the buyers in a check after the goods have been landed and weighed by the official weighers.

Copra oil is extracted in this country by the ordinary pressure system. The benzine system is practically unknown here. The estimated outturn of oil is from 60 to 64 per cent, according to the quality of the material and the process used for drying. Most of the mills in Spain have been furnished by an English firm.

The waste product is sold in cakes for fodder, and hitherto most of it has been sent abroad, though the consumption in the interior districts of Spain is steadily increasing. This year, owing to the scarcity and dearness of fodder, more than half the product has been sold in Spain.

The oil extracted from the copra is principally used in the manufacture of soap, of which there are more than thirty different varieties made here. The soap-making industry in Spain is capable of being largely developed on modern lines, because, with a few notable exceptions, the processes used in the making of soap are very antiquated.

H. HENDERSON RIDER, *Vice-Consul-General*.

BARCELONA, SPAIN, *November 9, 1904.*

AUTOMOBILES IN BOGOTÁ.

(From *United States Consul-General Snyder, Bogotá, Colombia.*)

Last week the first automobile made its appearance upon the streets of Bogotá, and the excitement was unparalleled. Crowds have blocked the highways for squares, rendering traffic almost impossible, and great interest has been aroused as to the possibilities that this mode of transportation may offer in the future.

This automobile is an American machine, and some business may result from the present enthusiasm. I shall be pleased to receive catalogues from automobile manufacturers of the United States for filing in the reading room here.

It is rumored that a concession is shortly to be given to a transportation company for the exclusive use of the Camboa road, which leads from the upper Magdalena River to Bogotá. Automobiles are to be used exclusively by this company.

ALBAN G. SNYDER, *Consul-General*.

BOGOTÁ, *Colombia, October 24, 1904.*

NOTES.

Winter Navigation of the St. Lawrence.—The Dominion Government is about to test the feasibility of keeping the St. Lawrence River open to navigation during the winter months by the help of an ice breaker, such as has been successfully employed by the Russian Government in the Baltic Sea. A conference has just been had between the minister of marine and the officers of the Dominion Coal Company, to whom the task has been assigned of sending, in December, from Sydney to Montreal, a coal-laden steamer, accompanied by the ice breaker *Champlain* from the vicinage of Quebec, where she is now waiting for the freezing of the river to make this trial. It is believed that there will be no difficulty in keeping the St. Lawrence open as far as this port, at least, for a period in the early winter and spring, but much doubt is expressed regarding the part beyond Three Rivers. The Lake St. Peter, a few miles above here, en route to Montreal, will probably present the greatest obstacles, and it is doubted whether that portion of the river can ever be kept open. Should the experiments confirm this doubt the port of Three Rivers will naturally gain considerably in importance as a shipping center. The effort to escape from the present obligation of using Portland, Me., as port for the trans-Atlantic shipping of this region of the Dominion is, of course, a prominent factor in the ice-breaker project.—*James H. Worman, Consul, Three Rivers, Canada, November 14, 1904.*

European Exports of Peanuts to the United States.—For the first time African peanuts (arachides) received at Marseille have been reexported to the United States. The value of these exports during the fiscal year 1904 was \$25,065—shelled nuts, \$17,411; nuts in the shell, \$7,654. As some sample lots of American peanuts had been received in this city the year before, this turning of the tables may occasion surprise. It appears, however, that the exports of the nuts from Europe to the United States were in consequence of an unusual shortage in the American crop and consequent advance in price. A repetition of this shortage in the United States is unlikely, although home buyers will now have to consider the foreign market in establishing their prices. I am informed by the principal American importers that the African nuts are inferior to the American for comestible purposes, although richer in oil. This is also the judgment of the Marseille oil crushers. The Virginia peanut is undoubtedly the finest in the world in quality, but yields so poorly in oil as to render improbable the creation of an American oil-crushing industry unless steps are taken to secure a new variety combining the advantages of the standard American nut with the percentage of oil in the foreign nut.—*Robert P. Skinner, Consul-General, Marseille, France, November 5, 1904.*

Grain Elevators in Manitoba.—The trade and commerce department, Ottawa, has received from the chief inspector of the Manitoba grain inspection district a comparative statement showing the number of licensed elevators and warehouses, with the capacity of each, in his district in the years 1902-3 and 1903-4. In the former year there were 822 elevators and warehouses, with a total capacity of 30,356,440 bushels; in the latter there were 982 elevators and warehouses, with a capacity of 41,186,000 bushels. The elevators increased by 178 and the warehouses decreased by 18, and the net gain in capacity was 10,829,560 bushels. In Manitoba the Canadian Northern last year had 37 more elevators than it had the year before and 7 less warehouses. The Canadian Pacific Railway had 56 more elevators and 6 less warehouses. In the Northwest Territories the Canadian Pacific Railway has increased its elevators by 85, but has 5 less warehouses.—*E. N. Gunsaulus, Consul, Toronto, Canada, November 19, 1904.*

Canadian Paper and Pulp-Wood Exports.—According to the returns of the Canadian Trade and Commerce Department, just issued, Canada's exports of paper during July were valued at \$96,037. Great Britain took \$57,754 worth, the United States \$12,841, and other countries \$25,442. Of rags the exports in the same month were valued at \$14,700, the United States taking \$9,875 worth. Pulp wood to the value of \$261,862 went out of the country, all to the United States; of pulp also the United States was the only foreign buyer, taking \$138,285 worth. Canada's imports of paper in July amounted to \$198,365, Great Britain contributing \$46,606 worth, the United States \$137,286, and other countries \$14,473.—*E. N. Gunsaulus, Consul, Toronto, Canada, November 19, 1904.*

Cotton in France.—Marseille is not a cotton-importing port of great consequence. American cotton practically all seeks the north of France through the Atlantic ports. The trade in this city is therefore limited practically to cotton from various Old World sources. The arrivals here in 1903 amounted to 118,425 bales, of which America furnished 14,394. These importations have steadily increased from 43,688 bales in 1893. The fact of this steady increase and the sources of supply of this cotton should be suggestive to American exporters of the fact that they must face eventually important competition from new cotton-growing countries.—*R. P. Skinner, Consul-General, Marseille, France, November 5, 1904.*

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REVIVAL OF AMERICAN MACHINE EXPORTS TO GERMANY.

(From United States Consul-General Mason, Berlin, Germany.)

For several obvious reasons, which have been cited from time to time in these reports, the exports of American machinery and machine tools, which reached their highest development in 1899-1900, declined in 1902 to about one-third of their greatest volume. The causes of this falling off were mainly three: The general prostration of manufacturing industries in Germany at that time; the fact that German machine shops equipped with American machinery had learned to duplicate most of such machines and many other articles at less than the cost of the imported originals, and that many American manufacturers had established branch factories in Germany, the products of which competed directly with the output of the parent manufactories in the United States.

It is now apparent that the period of lowest depression is definitely past, and that, notwithstanding all adverse influences, the export of American machinery to Germany is increasing in due proportion to the general recovery of industrial activity in this country. The measure of this renaissance of a once flourishing and important trade will be apparent from the following comparison of the total imports of certain classes of American machinery during the first nine months of the years 1903 and 1904:

Imports of certain classes of American machinery into Germany, first nine months of 1903 and 1904.

Kind of machinery.	1903.	1904.
	<i>Metric tons.</i>	<i>Metric tons.</i>
Sewing machines	1,570	2,339
Machine tools	724	1,634
Metal-cutting and boring machines	91	206
Pumps	109	142
Typewriters	90	114
Electrical machines	27	63

Two reasons are ascribed for this rather unexpected increase in the machine imports which compete most directly with homemade products, namely, the conviction which prevails in many quarters that the original machine, made in the country where it was invented, is superior to any copy or reproduction of alien origin, and, secondly, the fact that since the demands of the American home market have relaxed,

with the diminished activity of the past fifteen months, our manufacturers and exporters have given more attention and effort to their foreign trade.

It is just this point in the present revival that is worthy of being recorded and its significance recognized. In an old and highly developed country like Germany, where not only the wants of its people in manufactured merchandise are fully covered by homemade products but a large surplus of most goods is produced for export, the importation of similar wares from foreign countries must depend largely upon the intelligence and energy with which trade is pushed by the exporter and his agents in German markets. It is a settled belief in Europe that Americans, although unsurpassed as manufacturers and caterers to their own countrymen, have only an incidental interest in foreign trade, and that this interest, such as it is, fluctuates in close and direct relation to the condition and demands of the home market. During the highly prosperous period of 1902-3 in the United States the export of many articles to Europe languished because manufacturers at home were too busy to attend to orders and correspondence from abroad. Complaints were frequently brought to consulates that American exporting firms would not even answer inquiries as to prices and conditions of delivery. It was at this time that the financial correspondent of the London Times, being sent to make an exhaustive study of the growing "danger" in the United States, encouraged his readers with the assurance that—

The truth is that foreign trade in any systematic way is now beyond the knowledge of the American people. I was almost tempted to say that it is beyond their desires and intentions. That in an indefinite way they would like to have a foreign trade is perhaps true; but for the reason that they have been so long accustomed to look to the home market, it is impossible for them to take the steps that would give them any considerable share in foreign markets. After all, Americans are the most conservative people in the world so far as outside conditions are concerned, and so where these are involved they are content to go on doing a foreign trade that is merely complementary to the home trade. If Count Goluchowski and some of the German, Russian, and French dreamers could only know the real truth about this people they would have little reason to concern themselves with their new bogey, the "American danger."

This is of course an extreme and therefore misleading statement of the case. The fact is that a great many, perhaps a majority, of American manufacturers and merchants are indifferent to export trade, and as a consequence careless and ignorant concerning the methods by which it should be developed and maintained. They regard foreign markets only as a convenient outlet for their surplus products in time of overproduction resulting from dullness and depression in the home demand. Notwithstanding all that has been said and written, they go on sending catalogues and circulars in English with values in dollars,

weights in avoirdupois, measurements in feet and inches. They insist rigidly on American terms "Cash against B. of L.," and kindly inclose a United States stamped envelope for the reply of the expected customer.

But, on the other hand, there are a large number of American manufacturers and exporters who really know that they want export trade, and have taken up the work of establishing, developing, and maintaining it, with all the energy, skill, and adroit adaptation of means to ends which distinguishes them as manufacturers and caterers to their home trade. They have come to Germany and established agencies either with German firms of high standing or as branch offices under their own management; their skilled salesmen have traveled over the Empire with samples and price lists printed in German units and currency, and their goods are known here for just what they are, no more nor less. It may fairly be assumed that when the manufacturers and merchants of the United States definitely make up their minds that they want a broadly developed, progressive, and permanent foreign trade, they will go about the work of obtaining it as ably and successfully as they have mastered the resources and capabilities of their own country.

It is because American pumps, machinery, typewriters, shoes, and many other manufactured articles are well known and appreciated here that the demand for them has recovered and kept pace with the general revival of prosperity in this country. The greatly increased importations of the past nine months are evidence of a vitality in the German market that will repay any intelligent, well considered and directed effort. No European people buy more readily and liberally what they want, none are more free from narrow prejudice against merchandise of foreign origin, none are more keenly interested in every novelty and valuable improvement, than the Germans. If the field here is less ready and easily worked than it was ten years ago, it is only because German manufacturers now supply cheaply and in unsurpassed quality many of the goods which were then imported, but there are still lucrative markets in the Fatherland for those who will seek them discerningly and cultivate them with intelligent and persistent energy.

FRANK H. MASON, *Consul-General.*

BERLIN, GERMANY, *November 8, 1904.*

Value of exports of American machinery into Germany in the year ending June 30, 1904.^a

Article.	Value.	Article.	Value.
Sewing machines	\$906,886	Pumps	\$73,271
Tools	240,322	Typewriters	857,989
Metal-working machinery	886,785	Electrical machinery	75,682

^a From data of Bureau of Statistics, Department of Commerce and Labor.

COMMERCE OF HAVRE IN 1903 AND 1904.

(From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.)

TOTAL TRADE IN 1903.

While marked expansion was not shown in the industries and commerce of Havre in 1903, the economic situation was more favorable than during the previous two years.

The weight of merchandise imported for consumption in France or for transit to other countries was 1,885,876 tons, an increase of 32,400 tons over the weight of the imports in 1902, but a decrease of 87,500 tons from the weight in 1901. The value of the imports was greater than that of those in either of the two previous years, being \$229,580,920, against \$211,376,881 in 1902 and \$219,082,200 in 1901.

IMPORTS IN 1903.

The following were the principal articles in which there were increases and decreases in the value of the imports in 1903 as compared with 1902:

Principal articles showing an increased import at Havre in 1903.

Article.	Total.	Increase.	Article.	Total.	Increase.
Cereals and flour	\$4,624,250	\$2,138,024	Oleaginous grain and fruits	\$3,639,558	\$166,172
Chemicals	1,074,296	160,168	Oil cake	522,444	38,400
Clocks and watches	1,919,555	384,240	Machines and machinery	3,334,563	797,578
Coffee	14,698,200	4,161,558	Mother-of-pearl and shells	3,583,424	1,657,091
Copper	11,144,950	964,557	Skins and hides undressed	11,606,784	1,677,606
Cotton	46,028,647	8,470,391	Tools and metal work	686,868	269,585
Fruits, dried and evaporated	1,343,899	900,182	Wood, hard	3,324,192	286,934
Furniture and woodwork	357,619	137,399	Wool	2,205,724	687,586

Other articles showing an increase were basketwork, bran, camphor, coal, volatile oils and essences, heavy oils and petroleum residue, paper, cardboard, and engravings, petroleum, resin and resinous products, toys, fans, brushes, and buttons, dried vegetables, woolen goods, and salted and prepared meats.

Principal articles showing a decreased import at Havre in 1903.

Article.	Total.	Decrease.	Article.	Total.	Decrease.
Iron and steel vessels	\$87,395	\$157,327	Ores	\$779,025	\$574,224
Brandies and liqueurs	642,897	101,311	Oils, pure fixed	852,390	529,876
Crude rubber	8,114,530	97,813	Pepper	755,315	132,871
Cheese	199,692	24,188	Rice	622,188	517,307
Cotton goods	18,566,360	591,399	Silk goods	8,362,368	644,556
Drugs and medicines	297,597	39,381	Sugar	221,708	437,392
Fats	460,845	197,285	Tobacco, unmanufactured	263,530	192,915
Gums	115,902	63,588	Wine	1,111,860	623,789
Indigo	517,940	343,998	Wood, common	1,579,571	209,735

CUSTOMS RECEIPTS IN 1903.

The customs receipts from all sources in 1903 (\$18,699,268) were over \$5,000,000 greater than during either of the two previous years. The increase was due not so much to larger imports as to abnormal causes. An unusual quantity of pepper was withdrawn from the bonded warehouses at the commencement of the year to avoid the payment of the increased duty on that product levied by the law of March 30, 1903. By the same law a manufacturing tax was placed on crude petroleum. The refiners, to escape the new tax, withdrew from bond and refined large amounts of oil before April 1, 1903, the day on which the new measure went into effect. Many coffee merchants, fearing that the proposition to increase the minimum tariff on coffee would become a law, paid the duties on thousands of bags of the berry and stored it in private warehouses.

In the following table are shown the customs receipts at Havre of all natures during the past three years:

Customs receipts at Havre in 1901, 1902, and 1903.

Character of tax.	1901.	1902.	1903.
Customs duties.....	\$12,911,662	\$12,846,673	\$18,044,893
Statistics tax.....	161,502	163,802	176,268
Navigation tax.....	274,062	270,091	290,782
Auxiliary receipts.....	89,349	88,743	94,568
Salt tax.....	88,457	38,724	39,409
Mineral oils tax.....			53,348
Total.....	13,475,022	13,408,033	18,699,268
Increase in 1903.....	5,224,246	5,291,235	

*The manufacturing tax on mineral oils created by the law of March 30, 1903, commenced to be collected April 1 of the same year.

EXPORTS IN 1903.

The exports of French merchandise, and of that received in transit from foreign countries, from Havre in 1903, as indicated by the customs statistics, were 684,607 tons, against 715,713 tons in 1902 and 700,476 tons in 1901. The approximate values were, \$163,648,929 in 1903, \$170,069,600 in 1902, and \$154,135,600 in 1901. The principal articles showing increases and decreases in the exports in 1903, as compared with the previous year, were as follows:

Principal articles showing an increased export from Havre in 1903.

Article.	Total.	Increase.	Article.	Total.	Increase.
Clocks and watches.....	\$2,922,330	\$1,101,730	Nickel.....	\$1,289,358	\$650,158
Coal.....	1,208,469	207,068	Pottery and glassware.....	1,125,608	33,608
Cocoa.....	5,860,408	1,226,008	Rubber goods.....	1,444,072	1,101,272
Coffee.....	9,883,610	1,488,200	Seeds for sowing.....	1,639,638	825,638
Cotton.....	1,185,408	509,008	Tobacco, unmanufactured	1,035,264	592,264
Hats of all kinds.....	1,390,173	809,773	Tools and metal work....	3,056,826	216,826
Linen and linen goods.....	3,431,071	81,271	Toys, fans, brushes, and buttons.....	9,411,688	3,175,488
Machines and machinery.....	1,330,205	145,805	Woolen goods.....	10,544,218	428,008
Medicines.....	2,016,300	367,500			

Principal articles showing a decreased export from Havre in 1903.

Article.	Total.	Decrease.	Article.	Total.	Decrease.
Crude rubber.....	\$2,582,796	\$56,204	Millinery and artificial flowers.....	\$2,276,063	\$480,117
Carriages.....	584,727	760,473	Silk goods.....	21,971,125	3,483,875
Cereals and flour.....	1,062,847	973,963	Skins and hides, undressed.....	7,025,967	1,629,683
Chemicals.....	990,500	263,500	Tobacco, manufactured.....	323,748	301,832
Copper, ore and metal.....	2,561,484	113,316	Wines.....	2,796,282	301,318
Cotton goods.....	28,907,564	2,773,636	Wool.....	995,218	319,982
Dyewood extracts.....	1,383,311	299,889	Wood for cabinetmaking.....	248,474	93,126
Fats.....	355,515	182,885			
Fish, salted and prepared.....	289,809	458,991			
Meats, fresh, salted, and prepared.....	324,800	200,600			

CUSTOMS RECEIPTS IN 1904.

The local customs receipts for the first six months of 1904 were over \$2,000,000 less than those of the corresponding period of 1903, and \$384,896 smaller than the receipts for the first six months of 1902.

The large difference was due to the unusual withdrawals of merchandise from bond during the first part of 1903, for the reasons previously mentioned in this report. To this cause nearly \$1,725,000 of the decrease may be attributed.

Customs receipts of Havre for first six months of 1902, 1903, and 1904.

Character of tax.	1902.	1903.	1904.
Customs duties.....	\$6,469,862	\$8,206,691	\$6,050,195
Statistics tax.....	85,200	86,187	83,618
Navigation tax.....	140,337	148,399	144,603
Auxiliary receipts.....	33,653	45,812	40,252
Salt tax.....	17,441	18,485	19,006
Manufacturing tax on mineral oils.....		4,023	23,929
Total.....	6,746,493	8,509,597	6,361,597
Decrease in 1904.....	384,896	2,148,000	

a The manufacturing tax on mineral oils created by the law of March 30, 1903, commenced to be collected April 1 of the same year.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS IN 1904.

The values of the imports and exports of Havre for the first six months of 1904 were not obtainable at the local custom-house, but the weight of the imports was 1,017,502 tons, and that of the exports 384,434 tons. The most important articles in which there was a decrease in the imports were coffee, cereals, pepper, salted meats, undressed hides, whale oil, dried vegetables, cotton, beer, crude petroleum, heavy oils, and bicycles and accessories. Those showing increased imports were preserved meats, lard, cod liver oil, rice, dried and evaporated fruits, ordinary wines, coal, and agricultural machines. The principal exports in which there was an increase were salt butter, potatoes, pure fixed oils, dyewood extracts, medicines, porcelain and glassware, silk goods and ribbons, white paper, furniture, millinery, and artificial flowers. A falling off was shown in the exports of dried and preserved vegetables, oil cake, wines, woolen and linen goods.

A. M. THACKARA, *Consul.*

HAVRE, FRANCE, *November 10, 1904.*

INTERNATIONAL PARCELS POST IN PERU.

(From United States Consul Gottschalk, Callao, Peru.)

The recent arrangement between Peru and the United States, providing for a system of postal money orders, appears to have met with great approval here. Many of our small American manufactured articles have been ordered by mail, and a goodly number of our newspapers and periodicals have been subscribed to by means of the new money-order system.

It is much to be regretted, however, that Peru has been unable to effect with the United States a parcels-post arrangement such as exists between this country and Great Britain, France, Germany, and some other European States. Dress goods, novelties, shoes, etc., are constantly being ordered in small quantities from Europe by parcels post, the number of packages of this kind handled during this year at Lima having been about 15,000 from England and not less than 25,000 from continental Europe. The reason why many persons import this way is that, although duties are charged at the post-office, just as at the custom-house, the very expensive charges of landing, lighterage, wharfage, etc., are saved to the importer.

Many merchants in Lima have told me that they had added to their stock certain lines of goods which had become known in the country by "postal importation" on the part of private individuals, and I am sure that much appreciable benefit would accrue to our American manufacturers if there were offered to the Peruvian public some such easy and direct means of importing samples and small lots of American goods.

A. L. M. GOTTSCHALK, *Consul*.

CALLAO, PERU, *October 30, 1904.*

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1904

TRADE OF HAVRE WITH THE UNITED STATES IN 1904.

(From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.)

EXPORTS DECLARED FOR THE UNITED STATES.

The value of the merchandise declared for export to the United States at the consulate in Havre in the fiscal year ended June 30, 1904, was \$1,839,787, which is \$715,050 in excess of the value in 1903, and \$964,975 in excess of that in 1902. The greater value of declared exports was due principally to the increase in the shipments of crude rubber, \$66,566; coffee, \$697,366; goat and kid skins, \$182,291; Camembert cheese, \$9,416; and nickel, \$65,581. Other articles showing an increase were dyewood extracts, feathers, flint pebbles, vanilla beans, hard woods, calf hides, and sheepskins.

Articles in which there was a decrease in the declared exports were copper, \$201,077; antimony, \$7,714; cocoa, \$2,725; old cordage, \$4,332; ocher, \$3,155; colza oil, \$2,529; pepper, \$10,114; saffron, \$3,683; clover seed, \$13,243; lucern, \$12,839; tin, \$37,577; and deer-skins, \$12,029. There were 283 Percheron stallions sent to the United States for breeding purposes during the last fiscal year, against 395 in the year previous.

On account of the high prices prevailing in the United States, \$84,109 worth of American raw cotton was resold by the local merchants in 1903-4 and shipped back to New York at a considerable profit, after the freight both ways was paid.

Havre is one of the most important European centers for the reception and distribution of goods shipped from the United States for consumption in France or for transit to other countries, and for the reception of French and foreign merchandise intended for exportation to the United States.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS (GENERAL TRADE).

In the following tables showing the weights and values of the imports and exports at Havre from and to the United States, it will be seen that 469,011 tons of American merchandise, valued at \$81,060,070, were entered in 1903 at the Havre custom-house for consumption in France or for transit to other countries. In 1902 the imports from America were 372,538 tons, valued at \$62,285,532.

Quantities and values of the exports from Havre to the United States in 1902 and 1903 (commerce général).

Article.	1902.		1903.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Animal fats.....	530	87,291	147	24,211
Automobiles.....	47	94,000	92	184,000
Bowlder flints.....			2,379	18,366
Brandies, spirits, and liqueurs.....	162	26,730	327	53,955
Cereals, grain and flour.....	255	11,985	100	4,700
Chemicals.....	271	38,875	400	50,000
Cheese.....	694	219,304	560	176,960
Chestnuts.....			289	106,977
Clocks.....	76	510,568	104	698,672
Cocoa.....			106	36,994
Coffee.....	137	28,633	91	19,019
Colors.....	358	52,268	373	54,458
Copper.....	267	73,158	619	169,606
Cotton.....	1	224	267	59,808
Cotton goods and ribbons.....	2,661	4,632,801	2,414	4,202,774
Dye-wood extracts.....	362	54,662	377	56,927
Feathers.....	233	1,707,191	159	1,164,993
Felt hats.....	6	12,156	5	10,130
Fish, pickled or in oil.....	1,299	501,414	1,188	458,568
Fish, dried, salted, or smoked.....			137	21,153
Fruits, table and oleaginous.....	150	13,050	606	52,722
Furniture.....	198	41,976	161	34,132
Glycerin.....	111	19,314	329	57,246
Gold and silver.....	1	210,538	4	842,154
Haberdashery and buttons.....	110	110,000	416	416,000
Hair of all sorts.....	168	137,760	117	95,940
Horns of cattle.....	85	24,565	58	16,762
Horses.....			10	9,390
Instruments, optical, chemical, and surgical.....	18	24,310	41	55,391
Jewelry, common.....	36	64,116	69	122,889
Jewelry, gold, platinum, or silver.....			2	10,248
Linen goods.....	103	500,065	139	674,845
Machines and machinery.....	248	66,712	262	70,478
Marble.....			337	10,110
Meats, fresh and salted.....	1	320	4	1,280
Medicines.....	210	128,310	325	198,575
Mats and matting.....	67	121,606	74	134,310
Millstones and grindstones.....	338	4,056	294	3,528
Millinery and artificial flowers.....	961	1,655,813	829	1,428,367
Mineral waters.....			362	13,973
Musical instruments.....	33	53,955	61	99,753
Nursery and hothouse plants.....			303	29,240
Objects for collections, not for use.....	91	398,575	65	281,125
Paper, cardboard, books, and engravings.....	452	156,488	474	163,056
Perfumery.....	270	106,920	339	134,244
Potatoes.....	11	212	194	2,586
Pottery, crystal, and glassware.....	2,045	171,780	2,809	235,956
Rags.....			370	28,490
Rubber, crude.....	170	279,310	219	359,817
Seeds for sowing.....			776	221,986
Silks, braid, ribbons, and silk floss.....	2,289	18,873,629	1,368	8,291,448
Skins, dressed and undressed.....	4,529	9,510,900	3,039	6,381,900
Straw hats, bark fiber, and grass hats.....	21	51,870	41	101,270
Stones, broken.....			88	933
Tartrates.....	8	1,158	15	5,790
Tobacco, unmanufactured.....	334	85,504	150	38,400
Tools and metal work.....	318	75,366	460	109,020
Toys.....	756	1,309,392	734	1,271,288
Vegetables, fresh and canned.....			319	42,669
Vegetable oils.....	511	61,320	235	28,200
Wines.....	1,353	499,257	1,587	566,603
Wool.....	342	160,398	18	8,442
Wool braid and ribbons.....	1,605	3,383,340	2,048	4,317,184
Wood for cabinetmaking.....	103	5,274	143	7,322
Woodwork.....	72	8,006	54	6,005
Yarn of all sorts.....	210	133,140	553	350,602
Other articles.....	8,210	561,564	2,469	168,880
Total.....	33,892	42,060,128	33,504	35,090,970

There were 33,504 tons of merchandise exported from Havre to the United States in 1903, against 33,892 tons in 1902, a decrease of 388 tons. The value of the exports in 1903 was \$35,090,970, a decrease of \$6,959,158 from the value of the exports of the previous year. The

statistics of exports to the United States indicate only the goods which are entered at the local custom-house for direct shipment to the United States and not those sent indirect through foreign ports. The principal articles exported were automobiles, \$184,000; cheese, \$176,960; chestnuts, \$105,977; clocks, \$698,672; cotton goods and ribbons, \$4,202,774; feathers, \$1,164,953; fish, pickled and in oil, \$458,568; haberdashery and buttons, \$416,000; linen goods, \$674,845; millinery and artificial flowers, \$1,428,367; pottery, crystal, and glassware, \$235,956; crude rubber, \$359,817; silks, braid, and ribbons, \$8,291,448; skins, dressed and undressed, \$6,381,900; toys, \$1,271,288, and woolen goods, \$4,317,184.

Quantities and values of imports into Havre from the United States in 1902 and 1903 (commerce général).

Article.	1902.		1903.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Tons.	Dollars.	Tons.	Dollars.
Agricultural machines	8,999	1,736,807	11,930	2,302,490
Apples, cut and dried, for cider	1,165	67,454	3,034	175,669
Automobiles, bicycles, and accessories	95	190,000	83	166,000
Bitumen and coal tar, solid and liquid	51	638	91	1,138
Bones and hoots of cattle			443	57,723
Cereals, grain and flour	39,285	1,209,978	102,383	3,153,396
Chemicals	1,945	153,555	2,456	194,024
Coal	10	4	1	4
Cocoa	419	184,360	548	241,120
Coffee	2,451	477,945	2,575	502,125
Copper	29,807	7,809,484	23,036	6,035,432
Cotton	156,249	36,187,268	185,750	43,019,700
Feathers of all sorts	29	136,010	58	272,020
Fibers, phormium, coconut, and others			1,126	186,916
Fish, fresh, dried, pickled, or in oil	3	579	5	965
Fish grease and other grease	1,426	233,864	2,472	406,408
Fruits, table and oleaginous	3,262	283,794	11,342	986,754
Furniture and woodwork			1,974	219,509
Gold and silver	61	4,930,241	193	15,564,095
Grain for sowing	171	38,304	175	39,200
Hair, horse, crude and prepared, and curled wool			11	7,656
Hair, all other sorts	114	79,344	139	96,744
Hides	606	232,098	898	343,934
Horns of cattle	8	1,928	46	11,086
Iron and steel	27	1,134	34	1,428
Lampblack			265	11,180
Lead			193	11,175
Lobsters, canned			242	106,238
Machines and machinery	2,300	476,100	2,750	569,250
Malt			592	3,996
Meats, preserved in cans			240	77,040
Meats, fresh and salted	36	11,556	78	25,038
Mother-of-pearl	192	159,744	291	242,112
Oils, vegetable, of all sorts	6,793	774,402	4,605	524,970
Oils, heavy	11,811	318,897	12,283	331,641
Oil cake	18,374	477,724	18,295	475,670
Paper, cardboard, books, and engravings	297	326,700	379	416,900
Petroleum	28,152	624,974	26,464	587,501
Pottery, crystal and glassware	54	4,536	33	2,772
Quercitron			414	9,522
Rags	3	138	49	2,254
Rice	22	968	12	528
Rubber, crude	235	392,450	131	218,770
Seeds, oleaginous	1,552	90,016	200	11,600
Silk and floss silk	15	93,330	11	68,442
Skins, dressed	91	237,874	96	250,944
Stone and terra cotta			1,619	31,246
Tobacco, unmanufactured	7,779	1,983,645	6,832	1,742,160
Tools and metal work	698	154,258	737	162,877
Vegetables, dried	836	14,784	893	39,292
Wood for cabinetmaking	4,341	134,571	5,856	181,506
Wood, common	29,146	670,358	31,944	734,712
Wood pulp			692	33,216
Wool	65	19,808	40	11,652
Other articles	14,060	1,363,820	1,973	191,381
Total	872,538	62,285,532	469,011	81,060,070

CHARACTER OF AMERICAN GOODS IMPORTED INTO HAVRE.

From the statistics furnished by the French customs officials it is impossible to specify the different kinds of manufactured products received at Havre, as they are grouped under the general headings "machines and machinery," "tools and metal work," etc. But from an inspection of the manifests of the steamers of the French Line, and of the cargo boats from the United States, it will readily be seen that many lines of American manufactured goods are represented.

The French steamer which arrived on October 20, 1904, from New York, discharged the following merchandise, most of which was of American origin: Rubber goods, dried apricots, chafing dishes, starch, articles for phonographs, automobiles, silverware, electrical apparatus, dental goods, bicycles and accessories, typewriters, aluminum, lamps, pearl buttons, wheelbarrows, shoe and other brushes, sausage casings, glass bottles, wood, wooden ware, shot and air guns, boots and shoes, counters, shellwork, leather goods, canned lobsters, crude rubber, furniture, chains, knives, cigars, copper, preserved fruits, leather, coffee, staves, sponges, labels, tinware, electrotypes, quinine, steel drills, thread, oil, oilers, chopping knives, printed matter, toys, iron beds, leather laces, shoe machinery, sewing machines, mandrels, wood machinery, marquetry, grinding machines, nickel, tools, church ornaments, dried peas, feathers, dentifrice, oil stoves, paper, rat-traps, sandpaper, paintings, whetstones, dried prunes, hardware, emery stones, turbine wheels, bolts and rivets, lard, saws, sausages, bells, lawn mowers, leaf tobacco, plants, gas and steam valves, glassware, clothing, and varnish.

HOW TO INCREASE AMERICAN TRADE IN FRANCE.

In 1903 France imported \$155,000,000 worth of manufactured goods, of which the United States furnished \$17,000,000 worth, or only a little over 10 per cent of the total. During the same period the United States sent to foreign countries \$425,000,000 worth of the products of American mills and workshops, of which but 4 per cent were exported to France.

At this time, when the production of many lines of manufactured goods in the United States is greater than the domestic demand, and American manufacturers are seeking new outlets for their surplus products or are trying to extend the markets already existing, the question arises whether the French commercial field is thoroughly developed and whether our manufacturers are taking advantage of their opportunities.

Of the cotton goods imported into France in 1903 less than 1 per cent was of American origin. The same may be said of clocks and watches, and of paper and its manufactures. Of the foreign boots and shoes received, 17 per cent only came from the United States, and in

many other lines of manufactured goods our share of the total French import is slight.

France is a country where the wants, habits, and tastes of the people are well defined, so that to be successful in selling their goods in the French market our manufacturers should study and conform to the peculiarities of the French consumer. If an American manufacturer is really desirous of reaching out for the French trade, before he goes to any other expense let him send a reliable representative to this country to learn, at first hand, the exact conditions, the credit systems, the banking and transportation facilities, etc., and what is being done by our most formidable competitors, Great Britain, Germany, and Belgium. If he is successful in establishing business relations the amount of the expert's expenses will be regained, and if not, the manufacturer will at least be saved the disappointment which he surely will experience if he tries to sell his goods by correspondence, by catalogues printed in English, or through unsatisfactory local agents.

American goods, by their fine qualities and cheapness, commend themselves to all consumers when properly presented. In my opinion, if the same intelligent methods now being used in the United States for placing American-made goods before American consumers were extended to this country the consumption of our manufactured products in France would be considerably increased.

A. M. THACKARA, *Consul.*

HAVRE, FRANCE, *November 10, 1904.*

EXTRACTION OF ESSENTIAL OILS AND PERFUMES IN FRANCE.

(From United States Consul-General Skinner, *Marseille, France.*)

A California correspondent, who desires information in regard to the "extraction of geranium oil," is not sufficiently explicit in his inquiries to enable me to reply as I should like. There appears to be no such thing as a commercial "geranium oil," in the same sense as olive, almond, or other vegetable oils are commercial. My correspondent may mean geranium essence, or possibly geranium pomade, popularly denominated geranium oil. It would be unprofitable in a consular report to pretend to give practical instructions in so delicate a trade as the distillation of flowers. Americans interested in this subject should serve an apprenticeship in France, or try to attract to their country foreigners already versed in the business.

The essences or essential oils, known also as volatile oils and perfumes, are odorous substances, oily, volatile, indifferently soluble in water, more or less so in alcohol, colorless or yellowish, inflammable, and likely to alter in the air. They are usually liquid at ordinary

temperatures, while some are solid or partly crystallized. They have not the greasy consistency of the fixed oils and they leave no durable blemish upon paper.

The most common means of extracting essences is by means of distillation with water or steam. Although the point of ebullition in the case of essences is above 100° C., they vaporize easily with steam. The flowers are generally gathered before the rising of the sun, and are distilled immediately. They may be placed with salt in barrels, and thus preserved, but when this is done the perfume is likely to lose its delicacy. Some plants may be dried before distillation; but the principle may be laid down that prompt distillation gives far the best results.

Numerous devices are on the market for cutting and crushing the plants and flowers and otherwise preparing them for the still. The essences do not immediately vaporize with steam, but only after a certain period. This results from the fact that the essence is frequently imprisoned in the cellular tissue of the plant, and escapes only as this tissue dilates under the application of heat. The stills are simple in form, and numerous designs are offered for sale. The steam carrying the liberated essence passes from the boiler through a coil of pipes, to be condensed in another vessel. The distillation is considered as accomplished when the water discharged from the coil of pipe is odorless. The liquid remaining in the boiler is then used again with fresh plants, so that any remaining particles of the essence may be secured.

The perfume-laden water is commonly received in a Florentine vase, from which the water is poured. If the essence is heavier than water the spout of the vase is placed higher than it would be otherwise, so that the oil may remain on the bottom.

The foregoing is the generally accepted method of essence extraction in this region. The process of securing perfumes or essences by absorption is equally easy of comprehension. This method is employed when the flowers under treatment, notably the violet, cassia flower, jasmine, and heliotrope, are so delicate and possess perfume in so limited a quantity as to render extraction by distillation difficult. To extract these highly delicate perfumes manufacturers avail themselves of the property which the plants possess of transferring their odor to greases, fixed oils, and paraffin.

Extraction by absorption is called maceration when the vehicle is liquid grease, enfleurage when it is a heavy grease, and pneumatic when a current of air is passed upon the flowers and then conducted through grease or benzine.

To extract perfume by maceration a quantity of clarified beef or mutton kidney grease is mixed with clarified pork grease, the combination being then melted, and in this form, at a temperature of 65° C. maximum, receiving the flowers designed for treatment. The flowers

are left in this bath for from twelve to forty-eight hours, after which they are strained out and replaced from ten to fifteen times, until the grease or pomade possesses the requisite strength. The French manufacturers designate these pomades by numbers, as 6, 12, 18, and 24, the numbers indicating the intensity of the perfume. Antique oils (*huiles antiques*) are manufactured in the same manner, except that the grease is replaced by olive oil.

Certain perfumes are so delicate that the process of absorption in hot greases is impossible. In such cases the flowers are placed in a linen cloth and are plunged in olive oil. The flowers are renewed every twenty-four hours, the operation continuing during one month. The oil is unlikely to become rancid during the operation. Another process involves the use of glass-bottomed frames upon which is spread a layer of grease. Upon the grease the flowers are extended and allowed to remain from twelve to seventy-two hours. They are renewed during the flowering season, sometimes two or three months. The grease imbibes the perfume and is converted into a very fine pomade.

Again, coarse cotton cloths soaked with olive oil and laid upon frames of wire netting are covered with flowers that are renewed frequently. Finally the cloths are subjected to strong pressure, and the perfumed oil is gathered.

Many of the pomades thus obtained serve to produce the French "extracts." The extracts result from the introduction of alcohol into copper drums containing the perfumed pomades. After a long and violent trituration the greases remain intact, but the odorous substances are dissolved by the alcohol. The contents of the copper drums are decanted and such alcohol as remains in the grease is afterwards withdrawn by distillation. The grease can not be used again for the purpose of extracting perfumes.

Success has recently attended efforts to extract essences by dissolvants. The principle entering into this method is that the natural perfumes are liberated by the application of a temperature higher than that of the atmosphere surrounding the plant. The inventor of this process separates the perfume by dissolving it in a highly volatile liquid, which is then distilled. Excellent results have followed the use of ether, chloride of methylene, mesitic alcohol, and sulphate of carbon as dissolvants. The flowers are introduced into an apparatus, into which the ether or other dissolvent is poured. After ten or fifteen minutes this liquid is drawn off, and more ether is introduced, and similarly withdrawn. The ether dissolves the perfume, and then, on distillation, leaves it in the form of a white or colored residue. This residue may be oleaginous or solid, but it always becomes solid after a time. Petroleum ether is recognized by the Société de Parfums Naturels de Cannes as the best dissolvent. This company has

perfected a system for obtaining essences, but has not disclosed important phases of the operation. The product is known as "essence concrète." One kilogram of this pure perfume is equivalent to 100 kilograms (220 pounds) of pomade.

As to geranium essence in particular, I learn that it is obtained by the first process described—that is to say by distillation. The essence of geranium is called "essence of African rose," and is extracted from the leaves and flowers of several plants of the *Geraniaceæ* family. Of these, the most important variety is that known as *Pelargonium odoratissimum*, which is the object of very extensive culture in southern France, Algeria, and Turkey. Several other varieties of geranium yield a sweet rose odor, to which the name of African rose is frequently given.

The coloring is almost always red, or a derivative therefrom, such as carmine and pink, even darkening to black.

Apart from a few varieties which thrive best on a stony dry soil, with a full sunny exposure, the pelargonias favor a healthy light soil, enriched by the addition of decomposed manures. If kept in pots, these should be most carefully drained. The use of manure is essential, if it is desired to make the plants strong. The cultivated varieties do not all yield seed, and those which do are reproduced only by means of seed beds. The pelargonias vegetate all the year round, but must be returned to hothouse or frame early in October. Though they are long lived, it is well not to preserve them after the age of two or four years, at which period they are most beautiful.

The leaves are distilled by means of steam, yielding 0.12 per cent of essence, which is frequently employed as an adulterant of essence of roses. The best essences known to commerce are the French and Spanish, especially the dark-brown essences. The African geranium essence is inferior to these. The gathering of flowers destined for the extraction of essences is a delicate process. Each flower must be plucked at an appropriate hour of the day, and in a certain stage of development ascertained only by experience. The crop of geraniums in southern France now reaches 3,300,000 pounds. One hectare (2.47 acres) produces from 55,000 to 66,000 pounds of leaves; worth from \$1.14 to \$1.33 per 220 pounds. The product in pure essence amounts to 2.20 pounds to each 2,204 pounds of raw material.

I am indebted to the important work of J. P. Durvelle, the *Journal de Pharmacie et Chimie*, and Vice-Consul Piatti, of Nice, for this information.

ROBERT P. SKINNER, *Consul-General*.

MARSEILLE, FRANCE, *November 15, 1904*.

FOREIGN TRADE OF HONFLEUR.

(From United States Consular Agent Hardy, Honfleur, France.)

The value of the merchandise declared for export to the United States from the consular agency of Honfleur (under the consulate of Havre) for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1904, was \$538,591.36, against \$813,610.45 in 1903, a decrease of \$275,019. The falling off was due principally to the decreased shipments of hides, owing to heavy local demands and high prices. With the exception of Camembert, all the cheeses showed a slight increase. There was also an increase in the exports of plants and trees (nursery stock). The customs statistics do not indicate the commercial relations existing between the United States and Honfleur consular agency. American products are generally purchased through Paris, Rouen, or Havre, and are entered at the custom-houses of those cities, and the exports to the United States at the custom-house of Havre.

The articles mostly imported into the Honfleur agency, through its two principal ports (Caen and Honfleur) are lumber, coal, nitrate of soda, phosphates, iron pyrites, and coal tar for making briquettes. The exports consist of eggs, poultry, butter, iron ore, fresh fruits, seeds and plants, and vegetables of all kinds, most of which are sent to Great Britain.

During 1903 there was a large consumption of American dried fruits, prunes, chopped and evaporated apples, and dried apricots, as the native fruit crop was almost a total failure. Owing to the scarcity and high price of cider, the favorite Norman beverage, many preparations for the manufacture of artificial cider appeared in the market, but they proved very poor, if not useless.

During the year about 120 members of the British Farmers' Association visited Normandy to investigate the methods in use in the dairy industries in that region. They did not find that Normandy was greatly in advance in the preparation and manufacture of dairy produce, but that, on the contrary, there was room for improvement. They were favorably impressed with the process of sterilizing milk for nourishing children in use at Caen. The results have been good, as is shown in the greatly diminished infantile death rate.

There is a growing demand for Caen and Quilly stone, both for building and for sculptural purposes.

There were 2,494 tons of German coal imported into Trouville during 1903, which was sold at \$4.31 per ton, while the price of Cardiff coal was \$4.91 per ton.

HENRY M. HARDY, *Consular Agent.*

HONFLEUR, FRANCE, *November 5, 1904.*

AMERICAN SALESMEN FOR MACHINERY IN ITALY.

(From United States Consul Keene, Florence, Italy.)

American manufacturers have long been in the habit of applying to consuls for lists of wholesale or retail dealers in machinery and, upon receiving them, of sending catalogues, illustrations, and price lists, which have proved to be almost useless, at least so far as hardware is concerned. American agencies to exploit American goods are established in England, Germany, France, and Austria, but none are found in Italy, nor is there any indication of an attempt by these European agents to extend the shipment of American goods to Italy.

Energetic and practical American mechanics or engineers are wanted here to explain how to move and to use engines fit for different purposes, so as to impress upon the Italian mind the superiority of the genuine American machinery over the counterfeit productions. That result can easily be attained by the cooperation of several manufacturers of the same city or State, or producers of the same line of goods. Italians are very slow, especially the agricultural class, to adopt any costly engine and to abandon the unwieldy machinery of their fathers and grandfathers. They want the test, the evidence, the proof. More results could be had through a few months of activity here by two competent Americans than through a dozen general European agents or ten years of advertising. The local commission agents, who may represent several firms of different nationalities, do not seem to exert themselves much in advancing the interests of the firms they represent.

FRANCIS B. KEENE, *Consul.*

FLORENCE, ITALY, *October 17, 1904.*

SILK INDUSTRY IN ITALY.

(From United States Consul Brush, Milan, Italy.)

An important and well-attended meeting has lately been held in Milan to consider the serious condition of the silk industry in Italy, particularly the silk-twisting branch. The meeting was convened at the instance of the Silk Association of Turin, which, deeply impressed by the present unsatisfactory situation, invited the Silk Association of Milan to jointly discuss the situation and attempt to find some solution of the present difficulties which surround this famous industry of Italy.

It was thought that the decreased consumption of organzine and tram were less responsible for the crisis than the want of proper commercial organization in the industry. Decreased consumption is one of those unavoidable industrial vicissitudes against which there is

little or nothing to be done. Old industries, flourishing though they may have been, in time give way to new industries. This being so, it would be fatal to obstinately try to resist the natural progress of the times; it would be a waste of labor and of force which might be otherwise usefully employed in new methods of production.

The production of twisted silk has diminished of recent years, yet the decrease has been too limited to be held responsible for the extraordinary condition of the silk-twisting business in Italy to-day. In proof of this was adduced the following table of exports, the quantities in which represent about two thirds of the national production:

Exports of twisted silk from Italy 1889 to 1903.

Year.	Tons. ^a	Year.	Tons. ^a
1889	34.600	1898	33.883
1890	30.612	1899	36.263
1891	29.491	1900	32.840
1892	30.201	1901	41.649
1893	36.375	1902	41.594
1894	30.740	1903	35.825
1895	32.794		
1896	30.199	Average per year.....	33.283
1897	32.177		

^a Metric tons of 1,000 kilograms (2,204.6 pounds).

In connection with the decrease in production it should be observed that in 1891 there were 487 silk works, against 346 at the present date. But the production in some establishments has increased, notably in those with fast, modern machinery, while others less well organized have closed altogether.

Since diminished production does not account for the crisis, it is necessary to inquire whether the depression is not the result of want of organization in the industry itself. It is known that in the last year silk-twisting establishments worked at a loss, and that this very unsatisfactory state of affairs has only recently been ameliorated by the low prices of this season's crop of cocoons. The excessive competition, which has become such as to weaken and discourage the whole industry, is dangerous, but might be avoided by an intelligent understanding among the manufacturers, which might reestablish to their mutual advantage an economical equilibrium between supply and demand.

At the conclusion of the meeting a commission was appointed to examine into the whole question thoroughly, to report as to the real cause of the crisis, and to suggest an adequate remedy.

HARLAN W. BRUSH, *Consul*.

MILAN, ITALY, *October 5, 1904.*

GRENOBLE GLOVES.

(From United States Consul Nason, Grenoble, France.)

It is felt by the glove makers of this region that the mark "Made in France" is being abused, to their great detriment, by being put upon foreign products, and there is on foot here a strong petition, indorsed by the municipality, that the laws requiring goods to be marked, to show the country of origin or manufacture, be made more stringent or be more vigorously enforced.

As kid gloves are the chief article of merchandise sent from Grenoble to the United States, it is of interest to note that there has been not simply a temporary depression in the glove industry, but a steady decline through a period of years. This has become a subject of great concern here on the part of glove manufacturers and glove workers, who number in Grenoble and vicinity some 25,000. With the majority the feeling prevails that the decline is caused by the high duties imposed on gloves by the United States. Were these duties reduced gloves would be more in demand, and reciprocally the people would have more means with which to buy the goods of the United States in return. In consequence a great petition is being prepared, indorsed by the city, asking the Government of the United States to consider this matter for the common relief of all workers, sellers, buyers, and consumers.

A minority, however, holds that, inasmuch as there has been a decline in the exports to Great Britain as well as to the United States, the improvement in and the future of the glove industry at Grenoble and throughout France must turn upon the superiority of the goods manufactured, irrespective of legislative relief.

The real cause of the decline is not probably to be found in the tariff, that having remained the same for a number of years, but largely in the change of "mode" or fashion. The increased use in the warmer months of the "fabric" gloves, made sometimes of linen or cotton, but mostly of silk, and produced in Germany and the United States, has, without doubt, been the determining cause of the decline in the kid-glove industry.

The exposition at St. Louis, as all previous world expositions, has bestowed upon the Grenoble exhibit—a most beautiful and artistic one, quite beyond competition—the "Grand Prix." Grenoble gloves, if they are to maintain their supremacy in the world's markets, and meet the wants of those who will always have "the best," must continue to be in reality the best, and without cheapening to meet competition must rely upon that suppleness in quality, that conscientious skill in fabrication, that elegance of finish and correctness in style for which they have always been celebrated.

The declared exports of gloves from this consulate from July 1, 1903, to June 30, 1904, were \$792,982, against \$835,551 in the preceding year.

C. P. H. NASON, *Consul*.

GRENOBLE, FRANCE, *October 31, 1904.*

CANADIAN IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRIES.

(*From United States Consul Gunsaulus, Toronto, Canada.*)

Increased activity in the iron and steel industries of Canada has resulted from the additional duty placed on steel rails, and the legislation recently enacted will doubtless secure to Canada the establishment of new iron and steel plants or the purchase by American firms of plants already in operation.

A recent issue of the Canadian Manufacturer, in commenting on the iron and steel industries in Canada, contained the following:

A great stimulus has been given to the iron and steel industries of this country by recent legislation. The \$7 duty on steel rails went into effect November 1, and there has consequently been a rush on the part of American rail mills to fill existing contracts before that time, while new orders are going to Canadian producers. The "antidumping" amendment to the tariff is being rigidly enforced. Where contracts are made by American firms for the installation of machinery, duty has now to be paid not merely on the articles imported, but on the whole contract price, including the cost of the labor employed in Canada in the work of installation. The effect of this is to confine American contracts to the shipment of machinery and to give installation work to Canadian firms. The result of these tariff changes, coupled with the great prospective demands caused by railroad construction, has been to stimulate activity in iron and steel manufacture and to increase the tendency on the part of American capitalists to retain a share of the Canadian market by investing in Canadian enterprises. A rumor has had currency that the United States Steel Corporation has secured control of the Northern Iron and Steel Company, whose plant is situated at Collingwood, Ontario. While it has been denied as premature, it turns out to have some foundation. Maj. J. A. Currie, president of the Northern Iron and Steel Company, states that overtures looking toward securing control have been made by a prominent official of one of the large American steel companies and negotiations entered into. The proposition contemplated the enlargement of the Collingwood plant by the addition of two blast furnaces and perhaps a steel-rail plant. In the meantime, however, further legal proceedings have been taken, in the name of the Cramp Steel Company, to obtain an injunction restraining the transfer of the plant and assets of that company to the Northern Iron and Steel Company.

E. N. GUNSAULUS, *Consul*.

TORONTO, CANADA, *November 19, 1904.*

FLOUR MILLS IN BRAZIL.

(From United States Vice and Deputy Consul-General Chamberlain, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.)

The former large sales of American flour to Brazil were long since destroyed. Many people think that Argentine flour was the only agent in the expulsion of American flour from Brazil, but the truth is that the English owners of flour mills here are the reapers of the greatest profits resulting from this expulsion.

Not many years ago a fine fleet of American clippers was engaged in carrying big cargoes of flour from Baltimore to this port. Now it comes here with an occasional scrap cargo of coal, lumber, or rosin, carried at ruinous rates. It is true that the rise of the Argentine wheat industry made the downfall of the fleet certain, but it is also true that while American flour has already become rare in the Brazilian market, the English capitalist is already reaping the rich returns that the new situation offers. What we are losing, or rather have lost, in the trade is being fully picked up by the English factories established on the spot, whose owners look with equanimity on 20 per cent profits on money invested.

Considering the advantages conceded to these mills, it is rather remarkable that dividends have not attained a far higher figure. They have an advantage over Rio Plata flour of 35 cents clear on every barrel in the mere item of duties; and over American flour this 35 cents plus 50 cents, the difference in freight rates between Baltimore and Rio and Buenos Aires and Rio. That is, since they buy all their wheat in Argentina, they have in these two items alone a clear advantage over American flour of 85 cents on the barrel. During the first six months of 1904 there was a total decrease in imports of flour to Brazil of 95,157 barrels, of which decrease the share of the United States was 86,600 barrels. I am aware of the conjunction of various causes foreign to Brazilian conditions during the six months mentioned which may be held responsible for a great part of this extraordinary decrease, but the Brazilian flour trade was lost to us long before these causes obtained.

GEO. A. CHAMBERLAIN,

Vice and Deputy Consul-General.

RIO DE JANEIRO, BRAZIL, *October 29, 1904.*

NOTES.

Emigration and Passenger Movement through Havre.—As was predicted in the last annual report from this consulate, the official emigration statistics indicate a still further increase in the number of emigrants who embarked at the port of Havre during 1903. There were 51,463 whose destination was the United States, against 44,920 in 1902, and 1,222 who went to Central and South America, making a total of 52,685 emigrants, an increase of 6,223 over the number in 1902, of 15,642 over the number in 1901, and of 20,468 over the number in 1900. In addition to the above, there was a considerable number of emigrants who left Havre for the United States via Southampton, London, and Liverpool who are not classed as emigrants in the statistics.

The movement of passengers, not including emigrants, at the port of Havre during the past three years is shown in the following table:

Movement of passengers at Havre (emigrants not included) in 1901, 1902, and 1903.

Line.	Arrivals.			Departures.		
	1901.	1902.	1903.	1901.	1902.	1903.
Trans-Atlantic.....	18,445	6,892	33,619	7,245	8,149	11,838
Anglo-French.....	14,724	17,064	20,516	13,882	18,119	18,929
Coasting.....	3,835	4,225	3,623	3,619	3,656	4,680
Honfleur, Trouville, and Caen.....	212,903	199,963	190,128	213,280	201,160	194,000
Total.....	249,907	228,144	247,891	237,976	231,084	228,947

Emigration statistics for the first six months of 1904 are not yet available, but the indications are that the number of emigrants embarked at Havre whose destination was the United States was less than in the previous year.—*A. M. Thackara, Consul, Havre, France, November 10, 1904.*

Water Power Utilization at Grenoble.—The utilization of the enormous power of the mountain streams and glaciers, called the “white coal,” is year by year attaining larger proportions. The last achievement is the lighting of the entire city by electricity generated 27 miles away. Ornate standards, 30 feet high, with curving pendants terminating with powerful arc lights, have been erected in the streets, and the full illumination, after a period of testing, is soon to be made the object of a festival night. Sixty dollars is the cost of installing and lighting a single lamp for a year, but the subsequent cost, for lighting simply, will be comparatively small—say one-sixth of the former cost.—*C. P. H. Nason, Consul, Grenoble, France, October 31, 1904.*

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1904

SHOE FACTORY IN BRAZIL.

(From United States Vice and Deputy Consul-General Chamberlain, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.)

To-day's *Jornal do Commercio* contains a notice of the establishment of a large shoe factory near Sao Paulo, which I have translated as follows:

In the suburb of Moóca, 10 miles from the center of Sao Paulo, the new and important shoe factory belonging to the Companhia Calçado Clark (Limited), successors to Clark & Co., whose principal establishment is in Scotland, was inaugurated on the 22d of this month.

The factory is built on columns in wings and covers an area of 1,400 square meters (15,070 square feet). The internal partitions are made of wood, and all the sections are completely independent. The machinery is of the most perfect type.

The material used in the factory is of the best, both national and imported, preference always being given to the former as long as it meets the requirements of the manufacture. The monthly production is 15,000 pairs of shoes, which are to be sold in all the markets of Brazil, from the State of Amazonas to that of Rio Grande do Sul, importation of the shoes made by the same house in Scotland having been stopped.

The technical management of the factory is intrusted to skilled English and American workmen, all the other employees being Brazilian.

I have the further information to add that practically all the machinery is American; that the factory is built on American models, and that most of the skilled employees are American. However it is important to note that all the American machinery was imported from England, and that some of it bears name plates giving England as the country of origin.

In the last two years an American firm has been invading the Brazilian market, and its sales through a Rio house will attain this year a total of something like 4,000 pairs of shoes. It was doubtless this invasion of the Brazilian market which brought to a head the English plans for putting up a large model factory. Probably the move will kill all Brazilian sales for American shoes, for the simple reason that merely in the items of import duties and freight the new factory will have an advantage of \$2 on every pair of shoes.

Added to this tremendous advantage is that of the location of the new factory. The suburb of Sao Paulo in which the factory is located has nearly 100,000 Italians of the poorer class. It is evident the factory will be under no necessity of importing labor, and no doubt, as soon as local talent has been trained, the high-priced English and Americans will be dispensed with.

The time seems opportune for calling the attention of the American capitalist and manufacturer to the basic difference between English and American methods of commercial invasion. The American is very busy storming European strongholds of manufacture simply because he thinks he can make certain things a shade cheaper than they can over there. By large sales he plans to make up for his close-shaved margin, but reflection will show that the motto "sell cheap to sell a lot" is based on a sterile market. The English and Germans, however, realize that there are parts of the world outside of Europe and North America where people dress much as we do and use much the same manufactured products, which they do not produce. They are persistent in searching out these virgin markets, and the American invasion of Europe only prods them on to greater energy and to the adoption of our advanced methods in their grasping new and rich territory. We sell shoes in England, it is true, but on what margin? The English make a great outcry about the American sales there, but quietly go on selling shoes in markets such as Brazil at a clean net profit of \$2.50 on every pair—this even when they themselves are importing.

GEORGE A. CHAMBERLAIN,

Vice and Deputy Consul-General.

RIO DE JANEIRO, BRAZIL, *October 29, 1904.*

RAILROADS IN HAITI.

(From United States Consul Ferris, Port au Prince, Haiti.)

The railroad at Cape Haitien is not yet completed, but the Government has taken over the enterprise and given it some financial assistance, and it is now being pushed forward to completion. It will no doubt stimulate agriculture throughout the rich farming district through which it will pass, and be the means of rapidly augmenting the products of the country for home consumption as well as for exportation.

The concession lately granted for a railroad about 100 miles long, extending through a very fertile part of the country from Gonaïves to Hinche, is being surveyed and building operations will soon be commenced and pushed rapidly to completion. The capital is furnished by a company organized in the United States, and the enterprise will undoubtedly be very successful. The country through which it will pass is very rich and fertile, and has an unlimited supply of fine woods, besides mineral lands rich in copper, gold, silver, and coal that only require means of transportation for their development. The building of this road will soon increase the production of other articles, which alone would furnish sufficient traffic in a short time to make a paying investment, as has been the case with the Cul de Sac

railroad, extending from Port au Prince to the Salt Lakes, through very rich plains.

Before the building of the Cul de Sac road there was scarcely any cultivation on a large scale, for want of facilities for transporting the product. The railroad was built under a concession promulgated August 1, 1900. Construction began on January 15, 1901, and on March 7, 1903, the last rail was laid. The company issued 1,000 shares of stock of \$1,000 each. On October 21, 1901, the company acquired the steam tramway running through the city of Port au Prince, which was bought from the original owners by the Government, and transferred to this company for \$100,000 in its stock. On the completion of the road it was accepted by the Government. In order to get funds necessary for some urgent improvements of the tramway line, and to extend immediately some parts of the road, and also to secure capital for the first year of working, the general assembly authorized the board of administration to issue \$200,000 obligations paying 12 per cent yearly interest. The greater part of the stock and of the obligations are owned by three American citizens.

The length of the tramway is $6\frac{1}{4}$ miles, that of the railroad 30 miles; the gauge is 30 inches. Ten locomotives are employed, and 17 passenger cars, carrying from 40 to 60 passengers each; 22 platform cars, 6 box cars, and 8 gondolas of an average capacity of 12 to 15 tons.

As before said, the line crosses the rich and fertile plains of the Cul de Sac, extending to the Salt Lakes. This railroad is the key to all future lines to this city, as under its concession it has the right to extend its lines to Carrefour, to the south, and to Carbarret, the entrance door of any railroad from the north of the island to the capital. The present company has made plans for extensions to Carrefour, $6\frac{1}{4}$ miles, to Carbarret, $12\frac{1}{4}$ miles, and to Petionville, $6\frac{1}{4}$ miles, in the east.

From the fact that the value of the traffic of the road increased from \$7,675 in October, 1903, to \$15,100 in October, 1904, it may be concluded that this first railroad undertaking in Haiti will have a fine future.

The Haitian Government has guaranteed a net interest of 6 per cent for fifty years on a construction capital of \$688,000, and for that purpose has abandoned to the company a part of the export duties, consisting of 20 cents on each 1,000 pounds of cocoa and 20 cents on each 1,000 pounds of logwood. This guaranty covers very largely the 6 per cent of the guaranteed capital.

The principal freights consist of logwood, fustic wood, lignum-vitæ, mahogany, wood for fuel, lumber for the sawmill, cattle, sugar, rum, honey, charcoal, cotton, wax, hides, and all kinds of vegetables and fruits, as well as dry goods shipped to the merchants along the line of the road.

I have gone into minute details of the railroad enterprise in this country to show what may be expected on the completion of the different projects. The country is rich in all valuable products, and the only thing wanted is means of transportation to the seaside.

JOHN B. TERRES, *Consul*.

PORT AU PRINCE, HAITI, *October 30, 1904.*

COTTON TRADE OF HAVRE.

(From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.)

During the season which has just closed (1903-4) there were imported into Havre 756,400 bales of cotton, against 802,800 bales in 1902-3, a decrease of 46,400 bales. Of the imports, 679,560 bales were from the United States, a decline of 58,600 bales; 59,300 bales from India, an increase of 16,070 bales, and 17,540 bales were from other sources. The sales were 72,770 bales less than in the previous season, and 22,760 bales less than in the season 1901-2.

The conditions which prevailed in the Havre cotton trade during the season 1903-4 are shown in the following letter recently received from one of the large local importers of American cotton:

The last season will long be remembered as one of trouble and losses to the cotton spinners and manufacturers of France. They started the campaign on the assumption that the American crop was a large one; the Bureau's [United States Agricultural Department's] estimate of the condition during August was very high, and all the recognized authorities gave estimates of about twelve millions. The lowest, which were of about ten and three-quarter millions, were ridiculed as underestimates. This belief in a plentiful supply was encouraged for months by circulars and newspaper reports in all the great cotton centers. In the meantime the speculative element had gathered strength in the United States. The winter months witnessed unprecedented excitement, and finally prices were inflated by the action of some unwise operators who were justified in their views by the small outturn of the crop, but who attempted to rush events with undue precipitation. In the first days of February the top price was reached, 108 francs per 50 kilograms (18.9 cents per pound) in Havre for the current month for the type middling. Then a collapse occurred, and it is generally supposed that many operators who had all along refused to believe in a small crop surrendered at about the top of the market, so that the decline proved almost as disastrous as the advance had been to many who had sold their production ahead without securing sufficient coverings in the shape either of cotton to be shipped from the United States or of futures to be converted later into actual spots.

The season under review has been fairly remunerative to the Havre merchants and brokers. A very large business has been done in both cotton and futures, and the Havre market, on the whole, secured a

handsome profit. Some heavy losses were, however, incurred through the action of quite a number of southern operators who had sold cotton early in the season for shipment during the winter months and who failed to ship. The loss in the Havre market from this source is estimated at \$200,000. None of the defaulting firms offered any satisfaction to their unfortunate buyers, so that the latter will be more cautious during the coming season about accepting none but the names of houses of undoubted credit, which is wholly in favor of those southern firms who for many years have borne the highest reputation, and who have never attempted to make sensational sales without a legitimate basis. It is gratifying to note that there are quite a number of American firms whose names command the highest credit in this country.

If the merchants came out of this trying campaign fairly well, the fate of the spinners was very different. Very few changed their minds on the subject of the crop, and most of them went on working at a loss, even when buying but little more than their daily wants. The reason of this depression, which has now lasted since the beginning of the year, seems to have its main cause in the unsatisfactory state of the retail trade, the shops having been doing a much smaller business in all the great centers. The country salesmen likewise report a restricted trade.

It is, as yet, impossible to report any improvement in the state of trade, and, indeed, during the last few weeks some cotton mills have been reported to be in difficulties; but it is thought there will be no general crisis, and that with a more liberal supply from the United States a more healthy trade will prevail before long.

The production of the French mills during the last twelve months was curtailed to an extent which it is difficult to estimate, but which may be roughly placed at about 30 per cent. At present there are some stocks of cloth for home use unsold, and the prices obtainable are absolutely out of proportion to that of the raw material. Middling Gulf cotton was quoted September 1, 1903, at 83 francs (14.6 cents per pound) owing to a squeeze, the stock having been very low. On February 3, 1904, it reached 108 francs (18.9 cents per pound), and to-day (October 1) it is 70 francs (12.3 cents per pound).

Quantities of cotton imported from the several countries into Havre, sales, and stock on hand 1902, 1903, and 1904.

Country.	Imports.			Sales.			Stocks, September 1.		
	1902.	1903.	1904.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1902.	1903.	1904.
	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>
United States.....	724, 780	738, 180	679, 568	724, 281	757, 772	675, 178	72, 466	52, 874	49, 190
India.....	17, 057	43, 229	59, 302	23, 727	38, 060	55, 057	8, 962	14, 131	19, 226
Various.....	15, 713	21, 431	17, 546	21, 688	23, 871	16, 693	3, 435	994	2, 200
Total.....	757, 550	802, 840	756, 416	769, 696	819, 703	746, 928	84, 863	67, 999	70, 616

A. M. THACKARA, *Consul.*

HAVRE, FRANCE, *November 10, 1904.*

COMMERCE AND INDUSTRY OF RENNES.

(From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.)

Rennes, an agency under the consulate at Havre, is not only the chief city of the Department of Ile-et-Vilaine, but it is also an important industrial, commercial, judicial, and military center. It is situated at the junction of the Ile and Vilaine rivers, upon the Ile and Rance Canal, and is 323 miles by rail from Paris. It has 75,000 inhabitants, and is well built and clean, with many large public buildings, broad, straight well-kept streets, and open squares.

Its commerce consists chiefly in butter (which is well-known for its quality throughout France and Great Britain, and the annual production of which is estimated at \$9,500,000), cereals, flour, leather and its manufactures, and bristles. Its principal industries are metallurgical production, tanning of hides, manufacture of boots and shoes, manufacture and bleaching of sail and linen cloth, spinning of linen, cotton; and wool; milling of wheat and other cereals, and starch making.

While there are boot and shoe manufactories in Rennes, the chief seat of this industry is located at Fougères, 26½ miles distant, where there are about 30 factories in which are employed annually 4,000 male and female operatives. American shoe machinery has been introduced in these establishments, and its use is gradually increasing. The region included in the consular agency being also devoted to agriculture, large numbers of American agricultural machines are in use.

There are no available statistics which would indicate the volume or value of the commerce of the district, as the merchandise received from or sent to foreign countries is entered at the custom-houses of the seaports of the frontiers or at Paris. As to the direct trade with the United States, the principal article declared at the consular agency for export is bristles, the value of the exports of which in the last fiscal year was \$45,370, against \$59,078 in the fiscal year ended June 30, 1903. Other exports were chestnuts, books, and manufactured rubber goods. These figures do not indicate the entire value of the trade with the United States, as probably four-fifths of the bristles sent from this region to the United States are bought by commission merchants in Paris and London, and declared at the consulates of those cities.

The harvest of last year having been a good one, the industrial and commercial conditions are favorable, except for the cotton spinners, who, like those throughout France, have been obliged to curtail their production on account of the high price of the raw material.

A. M. THACKARA, *Consul*.

HAVRE, FRANCE, *November 10, 1904.*

Germany's Raw-Iron Production.—According to the figures of the Society of Iron and Steel Manufacturers of Germany, the production of raw iron in Germany in the month of October was 868,523 tons, against 833,578 tons in the previous month and 869,463 tons in the same month of last year. This amount is divided as follows: Cast raw iron, 173,574 tons; Bessemer raw iron, 26,817 tons; Thomas raw iron, 547,890 tons; raw iron for steel manufacture, 56,072 tons; general sorts, 64,170 tons. October, 1904, was the best month for the German steel and iron trade since November, 1903.—*Wm. F. Wright, Consul-General, Munich, Germany, November 26, 1904.*

Fish Shoals Located by Electric Apparatus.—Under date of November 7, 1904, United States Consul E. Theophilus Liefeld, of Freiburg, Germany, reports that a German patent has been taken out for an electrical apparatus whereby the presence and extent of shoals of fish can be ascertained. A microphone, inclosed in a water-tight case connected with an electric battery and telephone, is lowered into the water. So long as the telephone hangs free no sound is heard, but on its coming into contact with a shoal of fish, the constant tapping of the fish against the microphone case produces a series of sounds which at once betrays their presence. The rope attached to the microphone is marked so that the exact depth of the shoal is at once ascertained.

Railroad Concession in Argentina.—The ministerio de obras publicas in Buenos Aires has given a concession to Carlos P. Lumb y Compañia, of Buenos Aires, to build a railway from Santa Regina, a station of the Ferrocarril al Pacifico, to La Zanja, a station of the Ferrocarril Oeste. The Argentine Government has abolished all duty on building material and rolling stock for the next twenty years. Correspondence with regard to this matter should be directed to Carlos P. Lumb y Compañia, Buenos Aires, Argentina.—*Wm. F. Wright, Consul-General, Munich, Germany, November 26, 1904.*

American Books Free of Duty in Spain.—Under date of November 17, 1904, United States Minister Hardy, Madrid, transmits a copy of a royal order, issued from the ministry of finance on November 17, permitting the free entry into Spain of books from the following countries (printed in the language of the country of origin), in reciprocation of the free entry into said countries of books printed in Spain: Denmark, the Netherlands, Sweden, and the United States. American books imported into Spain were heretofore subject to a duty of 13 pesetas per 2.2 pounds (\$1.14 per pound).

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PUBLIC UTILITIES IN HULL, ENGLAND.

(From United States Consul Hamm, Hull, England, reprinted from *Daily Consular Reports* No. 2122, December 8, 1904.)

The construction of a municipal telephone system in Hull has brought about a speedy reduction in rates. At a recent meeting of the corporation telephone committee it was announced that the charge for unlimited service over an exclusive line would be £5 (\$24.33) per annum to private houses and £6 6s. (\$30.65) to business premises. This reduction has been followed by a large increase in the number of subscribers. The National Telephone Company has been compelled to reduce its rates for unlimited service to private houses from £10 (\$48.66) to half that amount. To what extent this reduction will affect the company in other towns and cities is a matter of interest. It is stated that in the agreements which the National Telephone Company has with practically all the large towns and cities in England, and by which the corporations of those towns granted the company underground way leaves, it was made a condition that in case it reduced its unlimited-service rate in any place below \$48.66, a similar reduction must be made, if demanded, in all other towns. If this is the case, then other cities can now demand the same telephone rate that is made in Hull. Thus the competition in this city may prove beneficial to every city in England.

A recent report of the comptroller of accounts of the Hull corporation throws some light on the position of other corporation enterprises and the success attending their municipalization. On account of the crematory \$530.44 was expended for maintenance and \$306.58 was received in the year ended April 1, so that there was an excess of expenditure of \$223.86 in this case. On the public baths during the same time there was an excess of expenditure of \$1,110.53. In the gas department the profit in the year was \$15,380, from which there is to be deducted interest on the debit balance and a sum for the sinking fund, leaving a net credit balance on the revenue account of \$2,637. The working profit of the waterworks was \$149,893; deducting \$12,652, city fund annuity; \$57,449, interest on loans, and \$8,622 for the sinking fund leaves the net profits \$71,162. The revenue account of the electric lighting shows a working profit of \$88,696, from which there are to be deductions for interest on loans, sinking fund, and meter installments, leaving the net profit \$7,976. The working profit on account of the street cars for the year was \$185,238,

from which \$48,329 is to be deducted for interest on loans and \$45,700 for the sinking fund, and \$37,400 to be transferred to the reserve fund, making the credit balance for this year \$57,500.

In each instance, then, with the exception of the crematory and the baths, the municipalization of public utilities in Hull has resulted in profit to the city treasury. The profit, it is true, is small, but it must be remembered that the charges for these public services are extremely low. A ride on the street cars in any direction to the end of the line costs only 2 cents; an exclusive telephone service in a private house costs less than \$25 a year, and in a business office about \$30 a year. Gas is sold at 48 cents per thousand feet and electricity at 9 cents per unit. The object is not so much to make a profit for the city out of these utilities as to furnish the public with the best service at the lowest possible price. Viewed in this light, municipalization in Hull can be pronounced a success.

WALTER C. HAMM, *Consul.*

HULL, ENGLAND, *October 31, 1904.*

AMERICAN SELLING AGENCY METHODS.

(*From United States Consul-General Skinner, Marseille, France.*)

Complaint is frequently made to me in regard to the American method of establishing central agencies in Paris or elsewhere, through which Marseille dealers are expected to work, if at all. Foreign commission firms are naturally eager to obtain as much territory as possible when dealing with our manufacturers, but they often lack facilities for getting into touch with the wholesale and retail trade scattered over many countries. Marseille is a city of half a million inhabitants, one of the great seaports of the world, and itself an exporting port to the African, Asiatic, and South American markets. If the important dealers here are obliged to pay a commission to other European firms for the privilege of doing American business, it goes without saying that prices are increased to the consumer, and the extension of trade discouraged and impeded. I think at this moment of one American commodity for which the principal European demand is centered in southern France, and for which the selling agency of the principal American exporter has been conferred upon a firm in a small provincial city of central Europe, whose territory apparently consists of the entire Eastern Hemisphere. It is obviously impossible for this agent to represent his principals adequately, except in a very limited field, and in the meantime trade which they might and ultimately will control is being neglected.

ROBERT P. SKINNER, *Consul-General.*

MARSEILLE, FRANCE, *November 5, 1904.*

PASSENGER MOVEMENTS AND EXPORTS AT CHERBOURG.

(From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.)

Cherbourg derives its importance as to its relations with the United States principally from its being a port of call for the steamers of the North German Lloyd, Hamburg-American, and American lines to embark and disembark passengers and baggage going to and coming from New York. The steamers of the American Line at present call only on their return voyage to the United States.

In the following table is shown the movement of passengers at Cherbourg for the past three years:

Movement of passengers through the port of Cherbourg in 1901, 1902, and 1903.

Flag and route.	Steamers.						Passengers.		
	1901.	1902.	1903.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1901.	1902.	1903.
FRENCH.	No.	No.	No.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	No.	No.	No.
Havre to West Coast of Africa	5	6	7	7,539	9,359	10,755			
Havre to Madagascar	1			1,200					
ENGLISH.									
St. Thomas to Southampton	6	5	4	16,817	14,049	11,078	126	69	57
Buenos Aires to Southampton	48	47	48	160,767	156,209	158,265	801	681	869
New York to Antwerp via Cherbourg	9			56,600			268		
GERMAN.									
New York to Hamburg and Bremen	159	182	211	812,349	804,545	1,050,163	12,669	13,632	19,357
Brazil to Hamburg	20	9		43,042	23,632		70	49	
Buenos Aires to Hamburg	43	44	8	118,561	135,586	25,974	759	927	132
Montevideo to Hamburg	3			9,762			20		
Valparaiso to Hamburg	1	1		3,086	3,032		16	10	
AMERICAN.									
Southampton to New York	38	51	44	219,129	277,865	234,368	3,587	5,316	4,882
Total	333	345	322	1,453,852	1,424,277	1,490,603	18,266	20,684	25,297

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

American products intended for consumption in the Department of the Manche, in which Cherbourg is situated, and in the neighboring departments are imported at Havre.

Butter is the principal article exported from Cherbourg. In 1903, 20,236 tons of fresh and salted butter, valued at \$11,130,659, were shipped, against 18,891 tons, valued at \$10,937,744, in 1902, and 16,345 tons, valued at \$8,833,119, in 1901. The increase in the shipments in 1903 was due to the falling off of the exports from Australia, owing to the great drought in that country in 1901. Most of the French butter is sent to Great Britain for consumption.

A. M. THACKARA, Consul.

HAVRE, FRANCE, November 10, 1904.

SICILIAN AND AMERICAN SULPHUR.

(From United States Consul Heingartner, Catania, Italy.)

I inclose herewith a translation of an article which appeared in *Il Corriere di Catania* on the sulphur question.

There is considerable alarm felt here about the new competition to Sicilian sulphur. The fact that a 3,000-ton shipment is about due at Marseille, and that purchasers in the interior of Germany write exporters in Catania that they have offers from Louisiana at lower prices (as the largest Sicilian exporter stated to me last evening) and of equal quality, has had a very depressing effect on the Sicilian sulphur trade.

The total export of sulphur from Sicily in 1903 was 476,013 tons, of which 160,280 tons went to the United States.

ALEXANDER HEINGARTNER, *Consul*.

CATANIA, ITALY, *October 29, 1904.*

THE SULPHUR QUESTION.

(From *Il Corriere di Catania*—Translation.)

Cav. Malato, mayor of Porto Empedocle, sends us the following report of the deliberation of the town council of Porto Empedocle on October 6, 1904, regarding the reports from America concerning its sulphur production, which threatens to damage the Sicilian sulphur interests.

The town council is alarmed at the great development of the Louisiana sulphur mines, which now produce so much as to be able to supply not only the markets of Central and western America, but also the Eastern markets. Furthermore, Mexico contains sulphur beds which are being worked by an enterprising company, which perhaps will introduce its product in New York, and likely in Europe, at a price much lower than that of Sicilian sulphur. Assuming these reports to be true, Sicily would be doubly damaged if not prepared, specially if the mineral produced in those localities, besides being abundant, as it is said, is in quality equal, if not superior, to the Sicilian product; therefore, the following resolutions were adopted:

1. The minister of agriculture, industry, and commerce should be impressed with the necessity of sending at once a competent technical committee to Louisiana and Mexico in order to make inquiries and report on the extent of the deposits of the mineral, its quantity and quality, the possibilities of its extraction, at what price it could be produced, and to what extent it may damage Sicilian sulphur interests.

2. Our chambers of commerce should be informed of the above and their assistance should be asked in presenting our request to the minister of agriculture, industry, and commerce.

3. The editors of all Sicilian newspapers are requested to publish the above proposal, support it, and make it known to all interested parties, who should also consider the matter and act in such way as to induce the minister to take the necessary steps in favor of Sicilian trade.

PAPER MONEY AND EXCHANGE IN HAITI.

(From United States Consul Terres, Port au Prince, Haiti.)

The issue by the Government of nearly \$10,000,000 in paper currency within a very short period produced great fluctuation of exchange this year, gold rising from 150 to 600 per cent. This has been ruinous to all commercial transactions and there are but few importing houses remaining, many having liquidated and others, because of heavy losses, having ceased to replenish their stock. Had this currency been issued gradually, it would probably not have had much effect on exchange.

Another measure, very disastrous to the credit of the Government and also to commercial interests, is the law passed last August taxing incomes and placing a partial repudiating tax of 1 per cent on the bonded debt and 10 per cent on all interest and amortizements derived from the Government securities.

Before the passage of this law Haiti had always paid regularly the full interest and amortizement on its bonded obligations. Hence, there was great confidence in these securities and many business houses used them for credit abroad. After the promulgation of this law the former confidence was lost. Merchants holding these securities and obtaining credit on them were checked in their credit; naturally this immediately reduced imports and caused a great falling off of trade with the United States and all foreign countries. It was fully expected, before these measures were taken, that, owing to a very promising coffee crop, with fair prices, and the expansion of agriculture in general, prosperity in all branches of trade would prevail; this would have increased rapidly the imports and exports, but such bright hopes were not to be realized.

JOHN B. TERRES, *Consul.*

PORT AU PRINCE, HAITI, *October 30, 1904.*

AMERICAN SULPHUR FOR FRANCE.

(From United States Consul-General Skinner, Marseille, France.)

The first cargo of American raw sulphur, consisting of 3,000 tons, was shipped from Louisiana to Marseille in October, and there seems to be a fair prospect that American shippers will share permanently in the important French trade in this article. The requirements of this country are 90,000 tons a year, nearly all of which is used to prevent the spread of cryptogamic diseases of the vines. Approximately one-third of this total is ground and sold in its natural form, while the remainder is superheated and precipitated in the form of flakes of

pure sulphur, known on the market as "soufre neige." Over one-half of all the sulphur imported into France is received at the ports of Marseille and Cette. Heretofore the Anglo-Sicilian Sulphur Company (Limited), has had a virtual monopoly of the market, their prices per 100 kilos (220.46 pounds) cost and freight Marseille, being as follows on October 22: Third current Sicilian, \$1.89; third good Sicilian, \$1.92; third fine Sicilian, \$1.96; second fine Sicilian, \$2.08.

The last-named grade is the one for which the important demand exists, and against this inferior quality the American producers offer a sulphur 99.9 pure. The lowest prices at which Sicilian sulphur has been sold in Marseille, of which I find any record, were 39 cents less than the above-quoted prices in 1897, and were offered under the stress of exceptional conditions in Sicily. At the general meeting of the Anglo-Sicilian Company on October 14, in London, the chairman reported gross profits amounting to \$914,430, against \$752,590 in the previous year. Exports had increased 20,000 tons. The chairman warned the shareholders that the company was a trading concern, and liable to the vicissitudes of trade. Sicily, he said, had been virtually the sulphur producer of the world, and there had been practically no serious competition from other sources; but it was this year threatened with competition by certain mines in Louisiana, where it was claimed that a considerable quantity of sulphur could be produced.

Our American sulphur deposits were discovered in Calcasieu Parish, La., thirty-five years ago, while petroleum boring was in progress. The sulphur found was practically useless, however, being buried under 400 feet of quicksand. The rock being porous and filled with water containing sulphureted hydrogen, the sinking of shafts was impossible by old methods. After millions of dollars had been spent in attempts to reach the sulphur, it was decided by Mr. Herman Frasch to extract it by the application of water, superheated under pressure to many degrees above boiling point. It is then forced by means of iron pipes into the sulphur rock. The sulphur, being insoluble in water and of greater specific gravity, falls to the bottom of the well or deposit, from which point it is raised to the surface by means of an air pump. On the surface it is allowed to congeal, and is then ready for shipment.

The entry of Louisiana sulphur into the world's market is an unmistakable triumph for American ingenuity and commercial courage, which has brought its own prompt reward.

ROBERT P. SKINNER, *Consul-General*.

MARSEILLE, FRANCE, *November 5, 1904.*

NOTES.

Imports of Cereals at Havre.—The imports of wheat into Havre during 1903 were the largest in the past five years, being 90,937 tons, against 51,643 tons in 1902, and 61,824 tons in 1901. Of the wheat receipts in 1903, 61,758 tons were from the Atlantic ports of the United States, 6,119 tons from the Pacific ports, and 18,587 tons from Argentina. The imports of corn into Havre during 1903 were 58,023 tons, against 26,783 tons in 1902, and 70,642 tons in 1901. The United States sent 34,483 tons, Argentina 18,394 tons, British India 3,858 tons, and Canada 1,265 tons. In the first nine months of 1904 there have been 24,199 tons of wheat imported, of which 4,860 tons came from East India, 5,313 tons from Argentina, and 14,023 tons from the United States. In the same period the corn imports were 30,782 tons—15,132 tons coming from the United States, 14,996 tons from Argentina, and 654 tons from other countries.

In the last annual report from this consulate, and in several special reports, the attention of the American grain exporters has been called to the inferior condition in which American corn has been arriving in this port. Since the commencement of 1904 there has been less damage from heating, but there is still room for improvement. From information obtained from the local grain importers the prospects are bright for an increased importation of corn during the coming season, as forage of all kinds is scarce and prices are high.—*A. M. Thackara, Consul, Havre, France, November 10, 1904.*

Permanent Exposition at Grenoble.—The local chamber of commerce has opened an industrial museum or permanent exposition of the special products and diverse industries of this region. This is to be supplemented later by an agricultural museum and bourse to show the progress of science as applied to soil cultivation and the best implements for field work, and to facilitate business transactions on the part of farmers and cultivators.—*C. P. H. Nason, Consul, Grenoble, France, October 31, 1904.*

Colonial Exposition in Marseille in 1906.—A colonial exposition will be held in Marseille in 1906, for which preparations are being made with great energy. A site has been selected, and 1,500,000 francs (\$289,500) has been voted by the department, city, and chamber of commerce. The various French colonies have already appropriated 5,000,000 francs (\$965,000) to meet their expenses in this exposition, and further financial aid is expected.—*Robert P. Skinner, Consul-General, Marseille, France, November 5, 1904.*

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE AND LABOR

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DECEMBER 31, 1904

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ALCOHOL FOR INDUSTRIAL PURPOSES IN ENGLAND.

(From United States Consul Halstead, Birmingham, England.)

It is announced that the chancellor of the exchequer has appointed a committee to consider the feasibility of remitting the duty on alcohol for industrial purposes. The committee is to inquire into existing facilities for the use of spirits in the arts and manufactures without the payment of duty, and in particular to report whether the powers conferred upon commissioners of inland revenue by existing legislation permit their providing such facilities. It is asked to advise what measures should be adopted without prejudice to the safety of the revenue at present derived from spirits and with due regard to the rights of the present producers of spirits in the United Kingdom.

The committee is composed of experts and large manufacturers of alcohol and fine chemicals in the United Kingdom, some of whom have been active in showing how much the chemical industries of Great Britain have suffered through the restrictions of inland revenue regulations and the consequent great cost of alcohol, while German chemical industries have greatly profited at their expense, and, as is well known, German agricultural interests have been greatly stimulated.

Colonel Saddler, M. P., in a communication to a newspaper, of which I have seen only an editorial comment, states that there are a hundred manufactured products in the preparation of which alcohol is necessary; that many of the processes of production were discovered here and originally used in this country with many benefits to the work people; but that when Germany came into the field, the use of alcohol manufactures being encouraged there, British manufacturers could not compete with the German, and numbers of English factories abandoned the business, while others are struggling for existence. When the excise duties were established alcohol was regarded only as a product for drinking purposes and not as a raw material for manufactures. According to Colonel Saddler, while alcohol could be produced here at from 8d. to 9d. (16 to 18 cents) per gallon, the price is raised to 12s. 6d. (\$3.04) per gallon under existing conditions. As an example, dimethyl aniline is given, which Germany can produce for 3½d. (7½ cents) per pound, while it costs 2s. 4d. (57 cents) per pound in this country.

In Germany many tons of potatoes are grown annually for the production of alcohol, and there are as many as 3,000 spirit engines at work in that country, while alcohol lamps to the number of 50,000 have

been sold by a Berlin firm in a single season. In France last year some 3,000,000 tons of beets were used for making alcohol, and one of the advantages claimed is that spoiled crops are quite as useful for producing alcohol as good ones. Cattle on German farms are said to eat with great avidity potatoes from which alcohol has been made.

In this connection it may be of interest if I state that in May last Mr. Tyrer, now of the committee, delivered a lecture before the Society of Arts on the need of duty-free spirits for industrial purposes. I have seen only an editorial comment on the lecture, but I find that he told of the competitions, exhibitions, and other functions instituted by the governments of other countries designed to promote the employment of alcohol for the various purposes to which it is applicable, largely with the intention of benefiting the agricultural interests. His data and statistics evidently made a great impression, pointing out, as they did, the innumerable purposes for which alcohol can be, and often should be, employed. In conjunction with the incandescent mantle it forms a splendid and very clean illuminant, alcohol lamps being made on the Continent capable of giving as much as 1,000 candlepower, while 250 candles is quite a common result to obtain, and this with very moderate cost; besides that, the lamp is one which "vitiates the atmosphere in which it is employed to a sensibly less degree than any other illuminant except incandescent electric lights."

Alcohol may successfully be used to produce light and to propel vehicles, and he showed that it is absolutely essential to a large number of important industries, the principal among these being the dye industry. Many dyes (including Congo orange, benzo-purpurine, and malachite green) can not be manufactured without its use, while for the preparation of many medicines and valuable chemicals alcohol is absolutely indispensable. Consequently, Mr. Tyrer said that owing to the freedom in use of alcohol in Continental countries there is a great importation into Great Britain of these articles, which would otherwise be manufactured here.

The prime sources of alcohol are grain, beet root, and potatoes, and with the extensive use of alcohol for power and illumination, agriculture in this country "could not fail to revive." Apparently Mr. Tyrer held that the reform needed here is not so much in furnishing new legislation as in the method of executing the existing laws, which, he claimed, empower the inland-revenue authorities to authorize any person to receive alcohol for use in the art or manufacture in which he is engaged, and for no other purpose, without payment of duty, and this law "in recent years has been so administered as to enable experimental laboratories to carry on research without the payment of the duty which they would at an earlier period have been compelled to pay;" and while it would seem that this could be made quite adequate

to cover the case of any manufacturer whatever, it is mainly "the nervousness of the excise officials which prevents this being done."

To show what progress Continental countries have, in recent years, made with alcohol gas engines, I give the substance of a lecture on alcohol as a motive power delivered in March last at a meeting of the Automobile Club of Great Britain by Mr. W. R. Ormandy, D. Sc. The lecturer pointed out how greatly the chemical trades in this country were suffering from not being able to obtain cheaper alcohol. After stating that the efforts to get the laws relating to taxation on alcohol altered had met with limited success, he explained that his company had been naturally so interested in the movement that it had sent members of its staff to those countries where alcohol is largely used to obtain full information concerning it. They had, as a result of this investigation, been very forcibly struck with the fact that although the quantity of alcohol used by the chemical trades was very large, yet by far the largest demand for it on the Continent was in connection with the development of power, light, and heat.

His firm was inviting the cooperation of the societies and firms interested in anyway in the production or use of technical alcohol, and he was, therefore, pleased at the opportunity of enlisting the sympathies of the Automobile Club. Owing to the vastness of the subject he directed his chief remarks to the employment of alcohol for gas engines. He said the relatively high price of the unsuitable methylated spirit sold in this country was responsible for the small amount that had been used as a fuel. Although more progress had been made with alcohol for the propulsion of motor vehicles in France, yet the quantity consumed as fuel by engines in Germany was far larger. He then referred to early experiments made in 1895 by Professor Hartmann with a Grob motor—with which efficiencies of 13.6 and 12.2 per cent were obtained for petroleum and alcohol, respectively—and to Professor Slaby's tests of a new alcohol carburetor on a Korting motor, which showed a consumption of 550 as against 839 grams per boiler horsepower in the Grob motor. Between 1897 and 1901 many makers had constructed motors which ran on a consumption of 390 to 440 grams of alcohol per boiler horsepower.

The reason why alcohol was so long neglected for internal-combustion engines, when efforts were being made in every direction to find an outlet for the overproduction which was taking place, was that the heat of combustion of alcohol is 5,500 and of petrol (gasoline) and paraffin (petroleum) about 10,250. At first it would appear hopeless to compare them, unless the price of the one were approximately half the price of the other. If the value of a fuel were indeed measured by its heat of combustion this would be the case, but it depends rather on the number of calories which can be converted into work. Out of the ten alcohol-driven engines entered in 1902 in the competition for

the prize offered by the German Agricultural Society, no less than three gave efficiencies of from 32.7 to 30.9 per cent when working on full load. This astonishing result places the alcohol motor very high as an economical machine for the conversion of heat into work, and it is of interest to note that the degree of compression used was on the whole very much higher than that which it is customary to use for petrol-driven motors. In some cases a compression up to $10\frac{1}{2}$ atmospheres was used, and the greatest explosion pressure attained was 33 atmospheres. The result attained appeared to show that the higher efficiency of the alcohol motor is due almost entirely to the high compression which can be used.

How comes it, then, he continued, that this compression can be used in the case of alcohol and not in the case of petrol? During compression of a mixture of any fuel as vapor and air, heat is given out, and at a certain point the temperature is such that explosion takes place. This point fixes the absolute limit of compression, for if the pressure be carried beyond this point we get preignition. Now, the temperature depends largely upon the specific heat of the substance in the mixture. In the case of petrol this is very low; in the case of alcohol it is very much higher. We have also to bear in mind that the spirit used in these experiments contained 10 per cent of its volume of water, and that the influence of water is to allow of very much greater compression. In the new Voigt motor, using coal gas and air in the presence of steam, it was found necessary to produce compression pressures of 25 atmospheres before self-ignition took place.

MARSHAL HALSTEAD, *Consul*.

BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND, *October 13, 1904*.

ALCOHOL IN FRANCE IN 1903.

(From United States Commercial Agent Griffin, Limoges, France.)

A congress recently held in Vienna called attention to the many uses to which alcohol is adapted, especially for manufacturing a safe and cheap illuminating gas and for motors for automobiles, etc.

The inventors of certain novel processes for manufacturing alcohol claim that illuminating gas can be generated therefrom at less than one-third the price of ordinary coal gas. Some intensely interesting experiments are being tried just now in Denmark for distilling alcohol from peat at an estimated cost of about 1 cent per gallon. It is to be manufactured to replace gasoline and petroleum for illuminating purposes and for motive power. France and Germany are watching these experiments with great interest, knowing that if they are as successful as the inventor claims they will make an industrial revolution.

The French indirect-tax office has recently published in the *Bulletin de Statistique et de Législation* the official statement of the production

and consumption of alcohol in France during 1903. The statistics quoted below are from that publication.

Alcohol was made by 113,879 registered persons. Of these, 191 used farinaceous substances to produce the alcohol, 2 used potatoes, 289 used molasses and beets, 8,654 used wines, 7,526 used cider and perry, 92,783 used mash of different kinds, 4,363 used various substances, 153 used fruits, and 1 used glucoses and other sacchariferous materials.

The 45 largest distilleries in France are situated in the departments of the Nord, Pas-de-Calais, Aisne, Somme, and Seine-et-Oise. Each of these distillers turns out more than 10,000 hectoliters (264,170 gallons) of alcohols annually.

The various sorts of spirituous liquors on which taxes were paid in 1903 were as follows:

Quantities and kinds of spirituous liquors on which taxes were paid in 1903.

Kinds.	Gallons.	Kinds.	Gallons.
Spirits	1,294,856	Similaires d'absinthe.....	627,774
Brandy	22,261,354	Gin	1,702,948
Kirsch, rum, etc	3,306,621	Artificial wines.....	1,056,682
Bitter, sugared.....	256,060	Liqueurs	1,790,151
Bitter, not sugared.....	389,572	Brandied cherries.....	218,600
Absinthe.....	4,294,408	Cologne spirits, etc.....	98,271

The following table shows the quantity of alcohol produced and the consumption per capita in each of the last four years, and the average annual amounts for the decades from 1850 to 1899:

Production and consumption of alcohol in France, 1850 to 1903.

Year.	Produc- tion.	Con- sump- tion per capita.	Year.	Produc- tion.	Con- sump- tion pe capita.
	<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Quarts.</i>		<i>Gallons.</i>	<i>Quarts.</i>
1850-1859.....	22,856,028	2.06	1900	70,163,675	4.92
1860-1869.....	32,294,792	2.54	1901	67,404,756	3.72
1870-1879.....	40,832,782	2.85	1902	49,848,970	3.44
1880-1889.....	51,367,900	4.06	1903	54,075,691	3.74
1890-1899.....	60,495,040	4.59			

Since 1840 there has been a great change in the materials from which alcohols are manufactured; the quantity of pure brandy from grapes has diminished since the vines in the Cognac and Armagnac regions were injured or destroyed by the phylloxera, but it has increased since the American vines, grafted with French brandy vines, have begun to bear. In 1903, of the total of 54,075,701 gallons manufactured, 14,612,193 gallons were made from potatoes and similar substances, 17,725,019 gallons from molasses, 24,466,385 gallons from beets, and

2,556,562 gallons from wines, ciders, mash, lees, and fruits. The average price per hectoliter (26.417 gallons) was \$8.299.

The quantity of alcohol made from farinaceous substances and beets in 1900, 1901, and 1902 varied, and there was an increase in 1903 over the preceding year; that manufactured from wines and molasses decreased perceptibly in quantity. This may have resulted from the small vintage and apple crop, and the rise in the price of denaturalized alcohols. The average price of alcohols on exchange has gradually risen from \$5.255 in the first half of 1902 to \$9.30 in April, 1903, per hectoliter (26.417 gallons). A large number of distilleries for manufacturing alcohol from beets have been opened on account of the rise in the price of alcohol and the fall in the price paid for beets at the sugar refineries. Some refineries have been turned into distilleries for making alcohol from beets.

If the experiments being made to perfect alcohol motors and the manufacture of alcohol at a very low price proves successful, this industry may take an impetus hitherto unknown.

WALTER T. GRIFFIN, *Commercial Agent.*

LIMOGES, FRANCE, *November 16, 1904.*

TRADE OF ECUADOR.

(*From United States Consul-General Dietrich, Guayaquil, Ecuador.*)

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.

The exports from Ecuador in 1903 were valued at \$9,313,177, an increase of \$495,534 over 1902. The imports into Ecuador in 1903 were valued at \$5,524,907, a decrease of \$1,498,826 from the value in the preceding year. This decrease is supposed to be due to the bubonic plague that made its appearance on the coast of Chile and Peru, and the consequent measures taken by the superior board of health of this port, which decided not to permit the entrance of any vessels that had recently called at infected ports.

The value of imports from the United States in 1903 was \$1,398,268, a decrease of \$54,288 from their value in 1902, which really does not amount to much in comparison with the total decrease from all countries of \$1,496,826. The principal articles imported from the United States are lard, flour, kerosene, lumber, railroad material, and hardware.

The total imports in the first half of 1904 amounted to \$3,065,299, and the exports in the same period to \$5,845,590. The declared value of exports to the United States for the same six months was \$710,000 against \$720,000 for a like period in 1903. The principal articles imported during the six months were flour, lard, machinery, kerosene, iron pipes, and shoes.

PACKING AND SHIPPING GOODS.

It has been repeatedly urged on our merchants and manufacturers dealing with this country to have goods packed simply and lightly, and yet so as to be well protected. It must not be forgotten that duties are collected on gross weight. Every package, besides marks and address, must also have the gross weight marked in kilograms.

In shipping to this country particular care should be taken to comply with its customs law and to secure the certificate of the Ecuadorian consul.

FREIGHT RATES.

In order to compete with European manufacturers we ought to have cheaper transportation. Freight rates are cheaper from Europe than from the United States. The canceling of the existing contracts between the Panama Railroad Company and the several steamship lines will do away with an obstructive monopoly which has existed for many years, and will surely result in lower freights from the United States to the west coast of South America, thus enabling our manufacturers and merchants to compete on favorable terms with those of Europe.

The opening of the Panama Canal will make a complete change in this direction, and it is almost certain that by that time nearly all imports to this Republic will come from the United States, and that the greater part of the exports from Ecuador will go to the United States.

CREDITS.

Ecuadorian merchants obtain very long credits in England, Germany, and France, some houses allowing them one year. In the United States a credit of ninety days is all that can be obtained. This is one reason why the imports from Europe are always much larger than those from the United States. American manufacturers or jobbers should put forth a stronger effort, and try to interest and please the merchants of Ecuador, as is done by their European competitors. The establishing of a bank in Guayaquil with American capital would tend to increase greatly the commercial relations between Ecuador and the United States, and the stockholders would reap considerable benefits.

PASSPORTS.

Passports are not required to enter, sojourn in, or to leave this Republic; but it is advisable to be provided with them, as it might save Americans a great deal of trouble in time of public disturbance, or at other times when they wished to establish their identity.

RAILWAY.

The Guayaquil and Quito Railway Company has completed its road as far as Colta, about halfway between Guayaquil and Quito. From Colta there is a regular coach line to the capital, making the trip from this port in about three days.

VESSELS ENTERED.

During the year 1903, 163 steamers, with a tonnage of 221,452, and 23 sailing vessels entered at Guayaquil. None of them were from the United States except the yacht *Lady Nan*, of 30 tons.

QUARANTINE.

Steamers coming from ports where quarantinable diseases exist are received here in quarantine. The board of health has a Clayton apparatus in operation, which fumigates all vessels and cargo by sulpho dioxide under pressure.

HERMAN R. DIETRICH, *Consul-General*.

GUAYAQUIL, ECUADOR, *October 25, 1904.*

ENGLISH IRON TRADE.

(From United States Consul Metcalf, Newcastle-on-Tyne, England.)

There is a most remarkable contrast between the condition of the pig-iron trade now and its condition a year ago. In November last year there was a very heavy shipment of pig iron from the Tees, and the stocks in the warrant stores were falling. Yet the market was described as showing a "dead-idle business," and the prices of Cleveland iron tended downward. In every particular these conditions are now reversed. The shipments from the Tees are much smaller than they were; the stocks in the warrant stores have increased and are increasing; but the price has in the last few weeks risen until it is above that of a year ago, and instead of an idle business, the latest report shows a strong market with a full business.

So complete a change in twelve months is difficult to explain. It is true that the position of the American iron trade has greatly altered in that time, and the belief is becoming general that the dullness in trade has reached its limit; but these things can only partly account for the change. A speculative element is to be found in the iron markets, and the large purchases of warrant iron may be another explanation, for now the warrants are almost confined to Cleveland qualities, so that the speculation is more in those qualities. There may also be other factors in the change.

HORACE W. METCALF, *Consul*.

NEWCASTLE-ON-TYNE, ENGLAND, *October 31, 1904.*

MINERAL PRODUCTION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

(From United States Consul-General Evans, London, England.)

From the annual report issued by the British Home Office I have extracted certain statistics of the mineral production of the United Kingdom, the following table summarizing the production in 1902 and 1903:

Quantities and value of the mineral products of the United Kingdom in 1902 and 1903.

Minerals.	Quantities.		Value at the mines and quarries.	
	1902.	1903.	1902.	1903.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Alum shale	5,664	3,284	3,540	2,050
Arsenic	2,131	902	96,610	32,665
Arsenical pyrites	829	57	4,310	285
Barytes	23,608	24,271	112,070	111,600
Bauxite	9,047	6,128	13,395	7,580
Bog ore	4,906	4,090	6,130	5,110
Chalk	4,395,673	4,469,974	968,785	962,635
Chert and flint	99,344	73,181	87,065	75,180
Clay and shale	15,304,136	16,198,021	8,794,420	8,839,906
Coal	227,095,042	230,334,469	467,607,085	441,187,735
Copper ore	5,662	6,428	73,575	93,275
Copper precipitate	450	439	17,825	18,605
Fluorspar	6,287	11,911	15,930	42,690
Gold ore	29,953	28,600	63,105	84,975
Gravel and sand	2,067,745	2,245,757	788,705	857,780
Gypsum	224,669	219,897	394,845	347,110
Igneous rocks	5,466,964	5,425,538	7,001,330	6,540,270
Iron ore	13,426,004	13,715,645	16,440,555	16,149,685
Iron pyrites	9,168	9,639	20,770	24,080
Lead ore	24,606	26,567	879,810	1,012,460
Limestone	12,172,851	12,222,971	6,910,660	6,888,665
Manganese ore	1,278	818	3,410	3,280
Mica	8,542	13,197	15,235	27,890
Natural gas	150,000	972,460	150	970
Ocher, umber, etc	16,963	14,150	112,080	85,225
Oil shale	2,107,534	2,009,602	2,504,020	2,386,560
Petroleum	25		300	
Phosphate of lime	86	70	545	435
Salt	1,893,881	1,886,992	2,886,665	3,053,165
Sandstone	5,483,130	5,409,502	8,994,396	8,977,140
Silver ore		58		9,360
Slate	517,363	531,612	7,508,945	7,907,385
Sulphate of strontia	32,281	22,842	161,405	114,210
Tin ore	7,560	7,382	2,569,360	2,662,250
Uranium ore	52	6	10,140	1,170
Wolfram	9	272	1,365	64,320
Zinc ore	25,060	24,888	456,085	564,320
Total			535,524,420	509,042,020

a Cubic feet.

Quantities and value of the metals obtainable by smelting from the ores in the preceding table.

Metals.	Quantity.		Value at the average market price.	
	1902.	1903.	1902.	1903.
			<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Copper.....tons..	482	536	136,605	168,950
Gold.....ounces..	4,181	5,496	72,850	96,540
Iron.....tons..	4,899,814	4,500,972	71,224,685	70,984,205
Lead.....do.....	17,704	19,968	994,375	1,174,195
Silver.....ounces..	146,606	174,891	73,685	90,180
Sodium.....tons..	550		397,500	
Tin.....do.....	4,892	4,282	2,611,460	2,720,610
Zinc.....do.....	9,129	9,281	875,625	1,002,350
Total.....			76,436,785	76,237,080

The total value of the minerals produced in 1903 was \$509,042,020 a decrease of \$26,482,400 from their value in 1902.

COAL.

The decrease noted is accounted for by the price of coal, which fell from \$2.54 to \$1.90 per ton. The total output of coal was the highest yet recorded, namely, 230,334,469 tons, but the value was only \$441,137,735, against \$467,607,035 in 1902.

The quantity of coal exported, exclusive of coke and patent fuel, and of coal shipped for the use of steamers engaged in foreign trade, was 44,950,057 tons, an increase of nearly 2,000,000 tons over the exports of 1902. Germany, France, and Italy each received over 6,000,000 tons, Sweden over 3,000,000 tons, and Russia, Spain, Denmark, and Egypt each over 2,000,000 tons. Including the 2,055,444 tons exported in the form of coke and patent fuel, and the 16,799,848 tons shipped for the use of British and foreign steamers engaged in foreign trade, the total quantity of coal which left the country was 63,805,349 tons.

The amount of coal remaining for home consumption was 166,529,120 tons, or 3,930 tons per head of the population. Of this, 18,302,240 tons were used in the blast furnaces for the manufacture of pig iron, against 17,649,137 tons in 1902.

IRON.

The output of iron ore, 13,715,645 tons, shows an increase of 289,641 tons, but the value, \$16,149,685, is less by \$290,820 than in 1902. The ore yielded 4,500,972 tons of iron or about half of the total quantity of pig iron made in the country. The imports of iron ore during the year were 6,314,162 tons, 78 per cent of which came from Spain.

MISCELLANEOUS MINERALS.

Alum shale.—Alum shale is obtained in small quantities in Yorkshire from a bed lying between two seams of the Stanley main bed of coal in the Upper Carboniferous rocks.

Arsenical pyrites.—This is obtained from mines in Cornwall and Devon.

Barytes (mainly sulphate of barium).—There are three principal barytes districts—Northumberland, Shropshire, and Ireland. Northumberland supplies the valuable mineral witherite, or carbonate of barium; the produce of Shropshire and Ireland is mainly heavy spar or sulphate of barium. It occurs chiefly in veins of Silurian rocks and in Carboniferous limestone.

Bauxite.—Bauxite, sometimes called alum clay, occurs in the form of seams lying between sheets of Tertiary basalt in County Antrim,

Ireland. The production of alumina from bauxite and the extraction of the metal in the electric furnace form a new branch of industry which was started in the United Kingdom by the British Aluminium Company (Limited). The alumina is prepared at works near Larne, County Antrim, and then dispatched to Foyers, in Inverness, where abundant water power enables electricity to be generated cheaply.

Copper ore.—Copper mining is an industry which is rapidly decreasing in importance in Great Britain. In 1863 the production of copper ore and copper precipitate was more than 210,000 tons, valued at over \$5,000,000, whereas in 1903 the production was only 6,867 tons, valued at \$111,880.

Gold ore.—The output of gold from Merionethshire rose from 4,181 ounces in 1902 to 5,495 ounces in 1903. These 5,495 ounces of bar gold were estimated to contain 4,952 ounces of fine gold.

Gravel and sand.—The figures for gravel and sand must not be taken as representing the total output of these minerals, as they are so frequently dug from shallow pits less than 20 feet deep, which are not under the quarries act, and are not, therefore, compelled to furnish returns.

Gypsum.—The principal deposits worked are those of Cumberland, Nottinghamshire, and Staffordshire, where the mineral occurs in irregular seams and in spheroidal and lenticular masses in the Kenper division of the Trias.

Igneous rocks.—Under this head are grouped various kinds of igneous rocks, such as granite, syenite, diorite, basalt, etc., principally used for making road metal and paving stones.

Iron ore.—The principal iron-producing districts in the United Kingdom at the present time are Cleveland or North Yorkshire, yielding over 5,500,000 tons annually; Lincolnshire, Northamptonshire, and Leicestershire together yielding nearly 4,500,000 tons, and Cumberland and North Lancashire, whose output is nearly 1,500,000 tons. The Cleveland ore occurs in the form of a bed about 10 feet thick in the Middle Lias, and is worked by true underground mining. It contains on an average about 30 per cent of metal. The bed of brown iron ore in Lincolnshire, Northamptonshire, and Leicestershire forms part of the Inferior Oolite, and the workings are mainly open. The percentage of iron on an average is about 33. In Cumberland and Lancashire the ore is a red hematite, which occurs in the form of huge irregular masses in the Carboniferous limestone. This is the richest ore of the country, yielding more than 50 per cent of metal.

Iron pyrites.—Great Britain is dependent mainly upon Spain for its supplies of sulphur-bearing minerals. Nodules of more or less pure iron pyrites are picked out at some coal mines, and the mineral is also worked on a small scale in Ireland.

Lead ore.—Lead ore was obtained in 1903 from seventeen counties

in the United Kingdom and from the Isle of Man. The ore is almost all galena, much of which contains enough silver to enhance its value.

Limestone.—Limestone is very widely distributed throughout the United Kingdom, and is one of the most important minerals quarried in the country.

Tin ore.—Practically all the tin ore is obtained from Cornwall. It occurs in both granite and the overlying slate. No alluvial deposits are worked at the present day. Wolfram frequently accompanies the tin ore.

Zinc ore.—The zinc ore is almost entirely blende, and is obtained from veins in the Paleozoic rocks, principally in Cumberland, Wales, and the Isle of Man.

H. CLAY EVANS, *Consul-General.*

LONDON, ENGLAND, *November 1, 1904.*

WOOD TRADE OF HAVRE.

(From United States Consul Thackara, Havre, France.)

There was but little change in the wood trade of Havre during 1903. The imports of wood for building purposes were less than in 1902, being 67,271 tons, against 78,774 tons, while the receipts of hard wood for cabinetmaking and dyewoods showed a slight increase. The prices generally were low. Since the beginning of the present year there has been a slight improvement; the prices, although low, have a tendency to become more firm.

In annual and special reports from this consulate the attention of our wood exporters has been drawn to the importance of Havre as a market for American wood. During 1903 all of the 2,603 tons of undressed and sawed oak and the 7,391 tons of oak staves received at Havre were of American origin; 1,671 tons of the 2,030 tons of walnut and 19,457 tons of the 55,247 tons of other woods for building purposes also came from the United States. Still, more American wood would be used, not only in Havre but in other markets of France, if our merchants would be more careful (1) to send wood of good quality; (2) to have it sawed accurately to the dimensions specified; (3) to properly classify their shipments; (4) to send the qualities, sizes, and quantities ordered; (5) to deliver promptly. Accurate sawing to dimensions specified is very important, for no matter what may be the quality of the wood, if it is sawed neither to English measures nor according to the metric system, there is not only a loss to the French buyer, but he has trouble in supplying the wants of his customers.

More liberal terms of payment would also tend to increase the wood trade between the United States and France. Instead of drawing at

sight against documents for the full amount of the invoice as soon as the wood is shipped, as is the present custom of some of our exporters, let the drafts be made out for 80 per cent of the value, the balance to be paid after the wood has been received and inspected.

Quantities of wood imported into Havre in 1900, 1901, 1902, and 1903.

Kind.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.
HARD WOODS.				
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Mahogany	10,882	11,819	7,628	8,079
Palisander	2,103	667	732	2,252
Mexican and other cedar	614	699	1,018	715
Esenille	294	46	202	267
Lignum-vitæ	991	1,024	735	666
Cedar for pencils	845	519	538	1,304
Maple	306	627	478	287
Walnut	914	301	255	848
Box	1,561	848	2,533	1,539
Rosewood	42	18	14	88
Ebony	1,426	1,960	2,529	2,314
Various	5,375	7,588	6,772	6,496
Total	24,848	25,616	23,434	24,799
BUILDING WOODS.				
Oak, undressed, squared or sawed in various dimensions.	6,743	2,681	2,988	2,608
Oak staves	6,953	10,154	5,879	7,391
Walnut, undressed, sawed or squared	49	592	396	2,090
Other woods, undressed, sawed or squared	66,081	73,397	69,511	56,247
Total	79,776	87,824	78,774	67,271
DYEWOODS AND TANNING WOODS.				
Logwood	60,465	43,935	45,885	52,787
Fustic	7,060	5,420	11,320	11,784
Redwood	840	925	965	1,658
Quebracho	23,075	11,050	19,400	16,702
Total	91,440	61,330	77,590	82,931

A. M. THACKARA, *Consul.*

HAVRE, FRANCE, *November 10, 1904.*

NOTES.

Outlook for American Meat Products in France.—In spite of the adverse legislation, which has already seriously affected the volume of the American meat trade with France, there seems to be a possibility that an opening may be found for this class of merchandise next spring and summer. Of late there has been a practically inexhaustible supply of domestic pork products, which have been offered at such ruinously low prices as to greatly discourage farmers, who are obliged to pay excessive prices for grain and other forms of food. The result has been a considerable killing off of domestic live stock, which has, probably, by no means been replaced. If this conjecture proves to be correct, American pork will have to be imported.—*Robert P. Skinner, Consul-General, Marseille, France, November 5, 1904.*

Population of France.—According to official figures recently published in the *Journal Officiel* the excess of births over deaths in 1903 was 73,106; in 1902, 83,944, or 157,050 in two years, which, added to the population as determined in 1901, 38,961,945, makes the number of inhabitants in France in 1903, 39,118,995. There were 826,712 births in 1903, against 845,378 in 1902, a decrease of 18,666, and a decrease of 24,332 as compared with the average birth rate of the last ten years. The number of deaths in 1903 was 753,606, a decrease of 7,828 as compared with 1902, and a decrease of 54,788 in comparison with the average for the past ten years.

The number of marriages recorded in 1903 was 295,996, an increase of 1,210 as compared with 1902, and of 4,119 in comparison with the last decennial average. The number of divorces is steadily increasing, being 8,919, or 488 more than in 1902, and 1,758 more than the average for the past ten years.

The increase in the population is not due to a larger birth rate, for the number of births in 1903 was the smallest in the last ten years, but to a decrease in the annual number of deaths, the deaths in 1903 being less than in any year since 1893, with the exception of 1897. While in France the excess of births over deaths in 1901-2 was 21 per 10,000 inhabitants, the ratio in Germany was 153, in Holland the same, in Norway 150, Austria 125, Hungary 121, and Great Britain 119.—*A. M. Thackara, France, Consul, Havre, November 10, 1904.*

Cotton in Haiti.—The high prices obtained for cotton last year offered great inducement to planters here to cultivate this product on a more extensive scale, and they were rapidly increasing their planting. No doubt cotton would have become a great factor in the exports, and would have greatly added to the revenue of this country but for the great disturbance in Haitian finances, which caused a rapid increase of all expenses and thus compelled the planters to reduce their planting. While there has been considerable increase over former crops, the improvement will not be as great as was expected.

This country is very suitable for the growing of cotton, and a large quantity could, no doubt, be produced at a larger profit than in the United States. Haitian cotton once planted continues to produce for twenty years without replanting, and requires but little care or cultivation. The only expense is the gathering, ginning, and baling. The staple is of good quality. Sea-island cotton has to some extent been introduced with success and the planting is increasing, as it has proved to be very profitable. This cotton, once planted, will produce four crops before the plant dies out.—*John B. Terres, Consul, Port au Prince, Haiti, October 30, 1904.*

Pilot Charges in France.—The tribunal of commerce of Havre, in August last, rendered a judgment regarding pilot charges which, inasmuch as it established a precedent, will be important in settling disputes concerning French pilotage. The Red Star Line was obliged by a Cherbourg court to pay the pilot charges for one of its steamers which debarked a number of passengers at sea off that port when, on account of bad weather, it could not take on a pilot. The court gave as its reasons for rendering the judgment that a fiscal law existed in France obliging vessels to load and discharge in roadsteads. The cour de cassation (the French supreme court), to which the case was appealed, decided that fiscal laws had nothing to do with the question of pilotage, and that the treasury, not having suffered, had no right to concern itself. The judgment of the Cherbourg court was accordingly reversed and the case brought before the tribunal of commerce at Havre, which decided that pilots should be in readiness to board ships at sea, and not at the entrance to the port. This judgment implies, both in spirit and letter, that pilotage fees are a remuneration for services rendered and not a sea tax.—*A. M. Thackara, Consul, Havre, France, November 3, 1904.*

Valuable Woods in Haiti.—There seems to be considerable activity in cutting and working the valuable woods of this country. The Government has granted two concessions giving permission to cut certain valuable woods on its lands in different sections for a distance of over 9 miles from the seashore inland. These two concessions were granted to Haitians, with the privilege of subletting them or of forming a foreign company with the necessary capital to undertake the enterprise. In attempting to form such a company they have met with considerable encouragement from American capitalists. This industry, properly aided and encouraged by the Government, would add much to the prosperity of the country, as its valuable woods are almost inexhaustible. One branch of this enterprise will be the cutting of Bayahond wood for railroad cross-ties; for this use its durability is far greater than that of any other wood thus far used for the purpose.—*John B. Terres, Consul, Port au Prince, Haiti, October 30, 1904.*



